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The American Public Service: A French View . . . . ROGER GRÉGOIRE

POLITICAL institutions reflect in large measure the political history, the social structure, and the psychological predilections of a country. Hence, any attempt to understand such institutions without taking these factors into consideration must necessarily result in a distortion. This present examination of the American Civil Service *endeavors* to analyze that institution in terms of American history and the intellectual presuppositions of the American people.

At the outset, it must be remarked that the American conception of the public service is very different from the European. In France, as well as in all of the countries of Western Europe, the public service is regarded as a profession in its own right. The government employee is in a special position vis-a-vis the government. He is at once less free with respect to his superior than is the employee of a private concern and better protected against him. His obligation exceeds the duties of his particular job, but he is largely exempt from the hazards of instability which rest on the employee in private employment. In return for the restrictions which his employment places on him, the state offers the public servant a lifetime career with the special benefits derived therefrom.

In the United States, the approach to the public service is completely different. Not only is the public service not a closed profession, set apart and distinct from the others, but the citizen of the New World feels that it should not be. The government employee must feel neither specially bound to the government nor different from other citizens.

The origin of this point of view is very easy to discover and its influence explains the peculiar characteristics of the American civil service.

• ROGER GRÉGOIRE is Director of the French Civil Service Office. This article on the American public service originally appeared in *La Revue Administrative*, November-December, 1950. The editors of *Public Personnel Review* are indebted to the Editor of *La Revue Administrative* and the author, Mr. Grégoire, for their permission to allow this article to be translated and digested for publication in *Public Personnel Review*.

The translation and digest was prepared by ROBERT J. BATSON, a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Chicago in the Department of Political Science.

The Editors believe our readers will find Mr. Grégoire's article interesting and provocative.

I

IN THE Old World, the conception of the public service is the result of three factors only the relative importance of which varies from country to country. There is, first of all, the heritage of the Roman Empire. The *government* must insure that the general interest with which the *state* is charged will prevail. The prerogatives of the government give to the performance of the public business a special configuration which distinguishes it from private business. The government employee must, therefore, also be formed into a special caste, because his professional competence has no equivalent in the private sphere. From this situation arises the necessity of maintaining the government employee in his post, in so far as possible, by offering him the promise of an assured future.

In the second place, the state remains, though governments may change. Now, even though the government employee is placed under the authority and control of the government of the day, he is at the service of the state, and the impartiality and the continuity of the public service is a function of his independence of political dominance. If the public servant is given special guarantees, it is because it is in the interest of democracy to do so.

Moreover, and this is the third consideration, these special guarantees satisfy a

deep personal longing on the part of the public servant himself. There lingers in the European middle class, from which the great body of the civil service is recruited, an inarticulate yearning for the corporate state. The public service, with its career psychology, the stability this guarantees, the prestige attached to a special administrative corps, satisfies the ideal of a "calling" held by many Europeans.

On the three points just discussed, the American reaction is completely different. The public service is not considered to be different than private employment; the independence of the public service has only been admitted in recent years and even then only partially; and the notion of a closed profession is foreign to the psychology of the New World. Let me examine each one of these points in detail.

THE AMERICAN does not consider the public service as an institution set apart by special legal considerations. For him, the government service is nothing more than a "combined operation," very similar to those which necessitate the control of any undertaking.

This is an expression of the will of a people which intends to keep the public service in a subordinate position. This determination has its origin and its force in a very profound fear in the heart of each American, a fear which has expanded throughout the history of the American nation—the fear of the abuse of authority. On the morrow of the Revolution such a fear had not yet been manifest. The necessity of consolidating the Union had led the Federalists to establish a strong administration. But the coming to power of the Jeffersonians was the occasion for a reevaluation. For the "expert" extolled by Hamilton, the Jeffersonians substituted the layman; for control, liberty; for law, pragmatism.

For some time these views were largely theoretical, for government was called upon to play but a small part in the life of the country in the closing days of the eighteenth century and opening of the nineteenth. But as the industrial revolution gained impetus, the federal government had to multiply its services in the face of new needs (sale of the public lands, administration of the territories, the Indian problems, the beginnings of scientific, agricultural, and industrial expansion).

Public opinion was quick to react to the presence of a growing bureaucracy which threatened to foster a real social class and to appropriate power to itself. The existence of permanent civil servants was seen to be a danger to liberty and there were immediate defensive reactions. The Four-Year Tenure Act of 1820 was the most prominent, but it did not suffice to quiet all fears. President Jackson officially proclaimed the principle of rotation in office. The frontier spirit which Jackson represented upheld the ideal that a good American could do anything and adapt himself to any job.

But the techniques of government were becoming more and more complicated. The age of specialization was at hand; there was no fighting against such currents. Moreover, though two world wars would change the total complex of governmental activities and services, nothing could change either the principles or public opinion. Only recently ex-President Hoover has affirmed, more vehemently than Jackson himself, the fears of an expanding bureaucracy.

This is the reason why most Americans deny that the government employee should be specially trained for the public service or given special status. Though the Americans have recognized somewhat the necessity of reserving entrance into the civil service to competent persons, that competence is not peculiarly for the public service; the public service utilizes technicians with qualifications applicable also to the sphere of private business; the public service itself is not a profession.

THUS reduced to the role of technician, the government employee has but little effect upon the life of the nation, at least in theory. The independence of the public service vis-a-vis the political authorities, therefore, poses a problem less acute than in those countries where the civil service exercises prerogatives in its own right.

The spoils system, without restrictive guarantees, was for a long time the only method of recruiting civil servants in the United States. Its development, the reactions which it engendered, its limitations, have been the aspects of the American civil service which have attracted the attention of most European observers.

The patronage appeared with Washington's successor. In reaction against the excesses of the French Revolution, John Adams thought it necessary to fill most governmental posts with his partisans. In the circumstances, this move shocked no one, but it created a mischievous precedent, for when Jefferson came to power a few years later, his followers urged him to "restore the balance" in their favor. Jefferson announced his intention of proportioning the government posts between the parties according to their relative strength. This system of "balance," more or less in equilibrium, continued up to the election of Andrew Jackson who undertook a total overhaul of the public service. It was no longer a question of balance, but of monopoly. To the victor belonged the spoils!

The first reaction against the spoils system dates from the end of the Civil War. However, public opinion had not changed and when in 1875 President Grant tried to introduce a system of examination for certain posts, he found himself faced with a thousand difficulties.

It was only after the assassination of President Garfield by a disappointed office-seeker that Congress agreed to consider the problem. The opponents of reform attacked the idea of a civil service commission and merit examinations as an English import and as antidemocratic. The merit system was also seen as a threat to the very basis of political party organization.

The Pendleton Act, as it finally was enacted in 1883, placed only a small portion of public servants under the authority of the Civil Service Commission, but it did give the President the right to add to the list of classified posts. This has been done many times, but a tenth of government employees still remain under the patronage system.

It is interesting to note that when the New Deal agencies were established by President Franklin Roosevelt, none of the new positions created were recruited through the Civil Service Commission. It was only after several years that these new posts were added to the civil service lists.

One can, therefore, speak today of a victory for the "merit system" only in a limited sense. Frequently that formula is given a meaning it is far from deserving. The merit system in the United States is not, as one is sometimes led to believe, a complete system of guarantees designed to assure the independence of the public service from the political forces. It was never conceived for that purpose. Its advocates had no broader purpose than to close access to public posts to the incapable and to cleanse the electoral system. One could almost say that the establishment of the Civil Service Commission protects the politician against the appetites of his supporters more often than it shelters the public servant from politics. The partial nature of the reform of 1883 is highlighted by the "fair employment" order in 1948. This was a recognition that between candidates with equal technical qualifications an element of discrimination is still possible.

If American public opinion attaches little importance to the question of the independence of the public service and does not demand on its behalf protection by law, it is only fair to report that the public servants themselves only feebly aspire to such protection. Perhaps the American sees no connection between his profession and the place he practices it.

In France, a profession is something of a social status which one does not leave easily. It is defined most frequently in terms of an employer—the State for the bureaucrat, Ford for a mechanic. Across the Atlantic, the profession has no relation either with a social grouping or with a given organization. It is only a specialty which one possesses and which permits one to try one's luck wherever one finds the greatest

promise. The American identifies himself less with the enterprise in which he works, no matter what the importance of his position, than with the specialty which brought him there and which will take him off to some other place when opportunity knocks. A man is not an employee of Gallup or Walt Disney or the State; he is a specialist of a branch of statistics, of animated drawing, or of economics.

This point of view continues to gain ground with the progress of science and that taste for "rational" organization which appears to be everywhere on the increase. A man trained outside of an exact technique is useless in the United States.

One should note here a characteristic of the American educational system which appears strange to a Frenchman. The American university does not attempt to create what we, in France, call "an honest man"—that is to say, a versatile man with a broad outlook. Students do not study broad fields of knowledge, but narrowly-defined disciplines which are thought to be sufficient unto themselves. In such a state of affairs it is dangerous to leave the young to his own choice of a profession and there has developed, especially since World War II, a system of "vocational guidance" programs. The essential consideration here is "aptitude." The questions posed are not "What would you like to do?" but rather "Of what are you capable? Where are your best chances of success?" The role of the counselor is not, as in France, to discover tastes and interests but rather to measure scientifically the possibilities of finding the most remunerative position.

In the United States there is a vast literature on the strategy of getting a better job and holding on to it. This is, as one American said "hitching one's star to a wagon!" For the Frenchman, the wagon must not be only a profession but a business house, a banking concern, or a governmental department. For the American, the wagon is a specialty which one hitches here or there wherever one can get the best deal at the moment.

The idea, so dear to the heart of Europeans, and the Frenchman in particular, that one makes one's career in a particular spot does not exist in the American character. Such an idea is viewed as a barrier to that liberty for which the Americans are such fighters. Thus, an attachment can hardly grow up for the establishment for which the American works. This is why that particular enterprise which is the public service has not given rise to a special class of bureaucrats. An individual who works for the state is a public servant today because for an immediate interest he is utilizing his skill in the government service. Tomorrow, if opportunity beckons, he will pull up stakes and seek his fortune elsewhere without a thought for the thing he abandons.

There is another barrier, of a very practical nature, which works against the formation of a career service. Whereas in Europe, promotion in a given establishment is the normal practice for a versatile man who gains experience with age, a technician in the United States who attains his maximum skill very early can only serve in a restricted number of posts. A young specialist is worth more than the older one whose techniques are likely to be out of date—and neither one nor the other can take the position of his neighbor whose specialty is, for him, a closed book. They are strictly hemmed in and have no other hope of a future than to move.

Why should the Frenchman be surprised that the Americans do not feel that attraction toward a career in the public service which, in France, along with many valuable attributes carried an element of snobbishness? The sentiments which activate the Frenchman do not exist in the United States. A recent public opinion poll which was made to determine an index of attraction to the public service is of interest here. The result is very significant. Recent immigrants and after them, the first-generation American, attach a prestige to public service much higher than others who have been more thoroughly indoctrinated with the American psychology. For this latter group, the government service is a job like any other and carries no special significance.

II

Founded on such bases as have been described above, the American public service necessarily presents characteristics very different from those to which a Frenchman is accustomed. But under the pressure of events, these characteristics are being modified, and perhaps it is in order to inquire whether the theory itself may not be changing.

The distinctive characteristics of the American public service are, then, it seems to us, the specialized nature of each position, the lack of guarantees, and the absence of a career psychology.

Many of the differences between the Continental and American civil service systems spring from the fact that the idea of the "position" is different. In the principal countries of Western Europe positions in the governmental hierarchy are not too rigorously defined. They are distinguished less by the nature of the subject matter than by the level of the operations which are carried on. This is to say, the specialty of the employee is less important than his administrative talents, and the training of the public servant is directed to forming men of broad outlook rather than technicians.

In the United States, on the other hand, the tasks are broken down into minute detail and the positions are specialized as much as possible. There is little impetus to create positions corresponding to the French "administrateur civil" or the English "administrative class." The Americans create as many distinct categories as one can distinguish specific tasks. The practice is an expression of the belief that administration is and should be nothing more than a succession of technical operations. This is the expression of a university system which does not award degrees corresponding to the French "licenses" testifying to a certain level of liberal education, but which multiplies the types of specialization for which degrees are conferred.

It would not be correct to assert that the Americans do not concern themselves with preparation for the public service. Quite the contrary, American universities vie with one another in creating curricula in public administration, but the merchandise is not what a Frenchman would expect. We must remember that for the American, administration is not an institution but a technique, and consequently administrative studies are directed to those who plan to become administrators, private as well as public; that is to say, it is directed toward those who wish to acquire the science and the knowledge of personnel, budget, accounting, and public relations techniques.

There have been several proposals for the establishment of a "West Point" for the civil service, but this has been rejected as the first step toward the creation of a privileged group in the public service. It is true, of course, that the British have also refused to establish a special school for the teaching of administration in the belief that university studies are the best preparation for an administrative career. Of course, it must be remembered that the British university system is organized to turn out men with broad cultural orientations rather than specialists.

In the United States even the successful completion of an examination is not the final consideration for entrance into the public service. Courses studied, practical experience, previous government service, etc., are taken into consideration before eligibility is established. And this is a delicate business in a country where the value of an academic degree is dependent upon the quality of the university which awarded it.

Such a system makes it very difficult to organize a system of promotion. Persons recruited for a very technical position may find that there is no chance of advancement. In fact, the American public service does not offer a real career position to the employee.

Also, at all levels of the service, the door is open for entry from outside the service. In order for an employee to be promoted to a better paid position it is necessary that that position be of his specialty. Very curious things happen. A very talented employee finds himself stuck in his subordinate position while his neighbor gets rapid promotion because he is the only

one with the necessary specialized training. If he doesn't like it, he can look elsewhere. His leaving depends on himself and not on the administration! Even when an employee gains a higher echelon in the hierarchy, he is not considered promoted in the Continental sense; rather he is re-hired with more favorable conditions of employment. This is substantiated by the fact that he must undergo an examination as though he had never been in the government service before.

It is not surprising then, that under these conditions, position classification in which the Americans place such importance is a very different thing than in France where classification is employee-oriented rather than position-oriented. In a system which concentrates primarily on the position and only secondarily on the employee, the latter is poorly protected against arbitrary action.

Even when appointed, the employee has no guarantee of permanence. The ideas embodied in the French Civil Service Statute of 1948—according to which the employee keeps his grade and all of its rights even if his post is abolished and can only be discharged in accordance with certain requirements and on payment of a separation indemnity—appear scandalous to the American. In the United States an employee leaves the service when his position is abolished. Moreover, even though the position is not abolished, an employee can be dismissed at any moment, as was shown after World War II when a great number of government employees were discharged to make way for veterans.

FROM all this, there are two consequences—one happy, the other of dubious value. The first is that the American public service is not a closed system. Government service is not an asylum. One moves from public service to private, or vice versa, with extreme ease. The state of mind and methods remain fresh; there is nothing that suggests the ivory tower. The French civil servant, accustomed to administrative reserve and official secrecy is amazed at the candor with which his American counterpart lays bare intra-departmental quarrels. The public service is certainly less isolated from the rest of the country than in Europe. Thus, though the fuctionary may not be highly regarded, he is not despised.

On the other hand, there are few administrators who are trained to take the broader view of governmental problems. Their education does not contribute to that spirit necessary for planning, organizing, directing, and coordinating the public business. Many Americans deny that there can exist such a thing as an administrator *per se*.

The dangers of such a situation as here described are evident to those who have had contact with the American bureaucracy. The presence of so many *small* "cogs" in such a gigantic machine makes it extremely unwieldy and sluggish. Americans try to find in "coordination" a way to mitigate the absence of personnel with a view of the whole. But it is doubtful whether such persons are possible without the guarantees of a career service.

There are, however, indications that a new outlook is not as unlikely as one might previously have supposed. The Civil Service Retirement Act of 1920, for instance, provides one of the bases for a career service. The prospect of a pension causes a civil servant to pause and reflect before seeking his fortune elsewhere. Likewise, department heads hesitate to use their discharge powers when pension rights would be lost.

The Rogers Act of 1924 which established a career service for the Foreign Service was a step in the right direction. [Editor's note: The Junior Administrative Assistant program had not yet gotten under way when M. Grégoire was in this country making the survey on which this article is based. He presumably would add it to the list of signs pointing to a changed view.]

The veterans of two world wars have had a tremendous impact on the civil service as they have had on many other facets of American society. Veterans' preference and special protection in case of discharge or discipline are innovations in the American civil service which will exercise a general influence on the federal establishment.

Special restrictions imposed on govern-

ment employees, but not on employees of private undertakings are also indications of a growing feeling that government employees are, after all, a special category. As early as 1912 the Lloyd-LaFollette Act recognized special infirmities in government service by refusing to employees the right to join labor organizations that asserted the right to strike against the government. The Hatch Acts forbid certain kinds of political activity to federal employees. The recent Loyalty Review program again indicates that government employees are somehow different than employees of private enterprise.

These inroads into the prevailing system of governing the public service are related to an evolutionary process in the American conception of the public service. More and more recognition is given to the necessity of a career service. The writings of Leonard White have been particularly influential in this regard. President Roosevelt, in an interview for the Washington *Star* in 1937 asserted that the state is not an employer just like any other. However, the turning point in the history of the American concept of the public service is the Hoover Commission Report:

> There are still outstanding deficiencies in the Government's vast personnel program—deficiencies which must be faced squarely and attacked vigorously. Only in this manner can we hope to achieve in the Federal Government a civilian career service which attracts and holds men and women of the highest intelligence and whose competence is commensurate with the needs of our Government. Any personnel practices which do not attain this objective must be condemned. In their place we must substitute methods which will achieve such an objective. . . .
>
> This Commission proposes a far-reaching revision in structure and methods in order to build a career service which will select the best of our citizens on merit, free of political influence, with incentive in the form of genuine opportunities for promotion in the service, and which will eliminate the unnecessary and inefficient employee.

There is no doubt that the American civil service is changing before our eyes, but a complete reversal of viewpoint is not to be expected. It will, without doubt, remain very different from the European public service. Certain highly-placed civil servants may lose some of their qualities of technicians. But the great mass of positions will remain comparable to those in private employment.

It is, perhaps, permitted to remark that in several years the American civil service will unite those advantages which result from the American concept with at least a partial adoption of the viewpoint of the Continental public service.

A "Supervisory" Responsibility

. . . the job of personnel *staff assistance* to supervisors in evaluating and improving their management of people depends on the quality of the staff man. But the job of employee utilization is not his, and never will be, even though his job includes the words in its title. The representative works with supervisors to help get a good job done, but the job is a line job and the supervisor is responsible for it.—*Civilian Personnel News Letter, Office of the Secretary of the Army.*

What's Wrong with Government Information? . . . BRUCE QUISENBERRY

THE information and public relations services of government are being charged with waste, propagandizing, and ineptness.

Time magazine estimated several months ago that "the Federal Government employs about 5,000 full- and part-time press agents and spends an estimated $65,000,000 a year on salaries and printing, and the payroll is growing fast."[1] More recently, Drew Pearson estimated 6,000 press agents on the government payroll and then added what a poor press the government is getting![2]

Regardless of the exact number, most newsmen and members of Congress suspect there are more information men on the government payroll than are needed.[3]

Time, reporting another recurring criticism, says that in addition to information personnel, "nearly every high Administration official has a press relations adviser who masquerades as a 'special assistant,' [and who] feeds the press a constant flow of 'don't-quote-me' background information or 'leaks' calculated to prove that (1) the official is wonderful, (2) his opponents are not to be trusted, and (3) all is well in Government."[4]

The feeling is that sometimes these press agents do a helpful and necessary job, but too often plug the Administration's side of crucial government issues and hope reporters will not dig up the other side.

The Associated Press Managing Editor's Association at its 1950 annual meeting called for "more initiative in probing behind [the flood of government] handouts to get all the facts—not just the facts that Government Agencies want to give the public."[5]

At its 1951 meeting, this Association called for opposition to "the tightening down of news barriers" at home and abroad. Editors were urged to mobilize to meet new restrictions on information about the operations of the United States Government.[6]

There is the other side. Alexander F. Jones, Executive Editor of the Syracuse, New York, *Herald-Journal*, President of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, and a former Washington newsman, has reminded his fellow journalists that "Washington reporters simply could not operate effectively without Government information men. If Government ever decided to discontinue public information services it would cost newspaper and radio people millions of dollars."[7]

These samples of opinion point up (1) that the press cannot get along without government information services, but that (2) government information services are in need of improvement.

With this problem in mind, the Wash-

[1] *Time* magazine, July 9, 1951, p. 54, col. 2.

[2] *Washington Post*, November 29, 1951, p. 29, col. 7.

[3] The official government figures are expected to be announced in the near future.

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The Signal Corps is the communication system of the Army, its global radio, radio relay, wire and cable circuits reaching to wherever American soldiers are stationed or in action. It operates its own research laboratories, procurement offices, supply depots, training schools, provides long lines communications for the civil population of Alaska as well as for the military, and as an additional responsibility produces the Army's training and indoctrination films. Signal Corps combat still and motion picture photographers take the Army's pictures, many of which you see in your newspapers, magazines, newsreel, and television programs.

[4] *Time* magazine, July 9, 1951, p. 54, col. 3.

[5] Associated Press dispatch to *Washington Post*, November 15, 1950.

[6] Associated Press dispatch to *Washington Post*, September 27, 1951, p. 3, col. 1.

[7] As reported by *Editor and Publisher*, October 21, 1950, p. 20, col. 2.

ington Chapter of the Society for Advancement of Management decided to start an information and public relations roundtable to find some of the answers.

I have been chairman of this group since its beginning in the fall of 1949. Monthly roundtable discussions have been held and many special studies and inquiries undertaken. This is a summary of what I believe to be the best thinking in the field. It does not necessarily reflect the views of the Society, my colleagues on the roundtable, or those from the professions of journalism and public relations, or the various branches of the government that participated.

The Public Has a Right to Know

THE FIRST principle of government information is that all of the people have a right to all of the information about all of the government all of the time, subject, of course, to certain necessary limitations and safeguards such as military security, matters of state, and privileged or confidential communications.

This statement of principle is submitted in the hope that it will become the basis for a creed of service for local, state and national government information officers and their agency heads.

If the people in a democracy have a right to know everything about the public business (and how can they discharge their responsibilities as free and equal citizens if they do not?) then it is argued that the press, which is "the watchdog of the inarticulate public," should have access to all records and transactions of government, subject to the limitations noted above.[8]

It was admitted that it could prove costly if individual members of the public were allowed to examine government files at any time. But it might not be costly or inconvenient if representatives of the public, the press, could be accredited to perform this function in a manner based on the accreditation principles for other news gathering purposes. Further study of this subject is underway.

The inconvenience to administrators might be more than offset by the feeling of confidence the public would have that nothing is being hidden from them. For example, a well-known commentator once became suspicious of transactions in a certain agency. Come examine the books and files for yourself, he was told. He was satisfied, and what could have been a costly smear never took place.

To prevent covering up under the cloak of secrecy, suggestions were made that it would be desirable to establish an independent Security Review Board as a permanent part of our watchdog system. This Board would have a sufficient staff to make comprehensive spot checks of all government offices to hold down unnecessary classification and overclassification.

Related to the above is the frequently voiced need for reestablishing the system of regular press conferences by the heads of all government agencies. Reporters and editors complain that the only top officials on the federal level who now hold regular press conferences are the President and Secretary of State. For years, the British system of asking questions of the government on the floor of Parliament had its equivalent in the give and take of the press conference. This system could be extended to include bureau chiefs and the heads of branch offices in regional and local areas and, of course, state and local officials.

What an Information Office Does

A QUESTION that always starts a lively discussion is whether an information office should engage in public relations. This depends on what one means by public relations. For our purposes, public relations may be defined as all those relations an organization has with all its publics, including employees, and what is done to make them as good as possible.[9] Good public relations stems from good performance that

[8] The first time I heard "watchdog of the inarticulate public" used was by an unknown reporter in Kansas City many years ago. He was referring to the late Will Rogers.

[9] Borrowed from Mr. Keith McHugh, then Vice-President in Charge of Public Relations, American Telephone and Telegraph Company, in a speech to the Minnesota Employers' Association, January 30, 1949.

is publicly understood and appreciated.[10]

It should be obvious by now that information is another but essential part of public administration. It is not an esoteric, mumbo jumbo art practiced by a special breed of medicine men, but a function equal in significance to planning, organizing, budgeting, legal counselling, personnel administration, and other staff activities. It is an integral part of management. Information directors are a part of the management team.[11]

The most desirable name for the function seems to be Office of Information. The term public information, as will be noted later, might better be used to designate a subdivision of this office.

The best experience in government, as in business and industry, is that the Office of Information should be at the highest staff level, the director reporting to the head of the agency and his principal deputy.

The Director of the Office of Information should have a competent deputy of his own, and staff assistance for administration, planning, budgeting, accounting, and personnel management.

The following major subdivisions of an Office of Information are suggested. Each division would have the dual role of providing operating services for its own headquarters and planning, policy making, and staff supervision for subordinate headquarters.

Press and Media Information Service.—This division would provide services to the press (including the planning and management of press conferences and the monitoring of access to unclassified or unprivileged records and data) and branches to service pictorial, radio, television, newsreel, book, magazine, and other media. Some information directors may prefer to place the still picture service in the press branch, and combine newsreel and television services into one branch.

The use of the term "service" is urged for all divisions as a constant reminder why the information function exists.

Public Information Service.—This division would serve the general public through the medium of courteous response to all letters, telephone calls, and personal visits that are not the specialized responsibility of other offices in the agency. The Public Information Service should establish standards of telephone courtesy, letter writing, and handling of visitors throughout the agency and see that they are carried out. Other activities can include open house events, demonstrations, exhibits, film showing, speaking engagements, and the preparation and distribution of pamphlets, brochures, booklets, fact sheets, and other documents that provide the public with essential, factual information.

Our roundtable discussions and my own studies have led me to believe that a comprehensive information system can do much to minimize the evils of influence peddlers, five percenters, and contact men. To illustrate, not long ago a small businessman wandered into a government information office and explained that if he could not get quick consideration for his problem he stood to lose a chance to bid on an important contract that would help keep his factory going. He had been trying to find the right official for several days, but everyone passed him to someone else. He was ready to pay for help. It took an information man about ten minutes to find out where he ought to go and a quick decision was made in his case. This businessman, who probably would have spent the rest of his life referring to all government workers as incompetent, lazy bureaucrats had his faith restored and is now a booster of the public servant. The important thing, however, is that he received the courteous and businesslike treatment he deserved as a citizen.

Many information directors object to this "floor walker" function, but nothing causes the citizen to become fed up with his government and government workers like being bucked from one office to another.

Personnel Information Service.—A basic

[10] Thesis developed by *Fortune* magazine in an article entitled "Business Is Still in Trouble," May, 1949, p. 67.

[11] From an item in a recent issue of *Public Relations News*.

need of people who work for a living is to know the facts about what is going on where they work.[12] The better informed they are, the more efficient they can be; the higher their esprit and morale.

Employees are first-line, word-of-mouth information men. They are going to talk about their jobs and their agency with their family, friends, and acquaintances. If they do not have factual information, they will rely on rumor. If employees do not speak well of an agency it is doubtful if anyone else will.

Management improvement, cost consciousness and economy, which to a large extent depend upon employee attitudes for success, can be greatly assisted by information and public relations techniques.

Personnel information services include the use of house organs, employee newspapers and magazines, news posted on bulletin boards, and orientation and fact-giving meetings and conferences at all levels. The representative of one large corporation who participated in our roundtable said that they never made a press release without first teletyping the news to all their branch offices so that their employees had the story first along with enough background to enable them to talk about it intelligently to all their friends and associates.

Other Information Services.—Divisions or branches may be appropriate for historical information, legislative liaison and information, liaison with national organizations such as veterans, business, labor and farm groups, women's clubs and civic clubs, depending upon the mission of the agency. It should be borne in mind that this kind of detail would apply only to the very largest agencies and departments. Most information staffs consist of only a few people. The various services might be performed by all or most information staffs, but in the majority of cases not by separate branches, or even divisions; several different activities or functions would be performed by the same person.

[12] I am indebted to a pamphlet put out by the Timken Roller Bearing Company called "State of the Company," series 3, January 2, 1949, for this phrasing.

Justifying the Information Office

WHENEVER two information men get together to talk shop, the problem of winning the approval of Congress as well as the press always comes up.

Part of the solution is to apply a basic principle of public relations: Bring all information activities into the open and call them by names that everyone can identify.

The next step is to show exactly what is done and what it costs. This can be accomplished, in the main, by five types of records:

1. *Query Sheet.*—When a query comes in by telephone or as the result of a personal visit from press or public, write the query in the blank space provided at the top of the form. When the answer is obtained, write it in another space farther down on the sheet, adding who supplied the information and who concurred in its accuracy or validity. Then in a conspicuous space, and this is the payoff, show how much time was required to furnish the information.

2. *Written Queries.*—When answers are given in writing to queries from press or public, note on the file copy where it later can be easily audited, how much time was required to furnish the information. All other written memoranda, staff studies, planning papers, etc., might well carry a record of the time involved.

3. *Call Sheet.*—This is a simple, ruled form with columns for indicating "from and to," "subject matter," and "time." Use this record for in and out telephone calls, routine desk visits and errands, and the many interruptions that are an inherent part of the information job. Each line will show who, what, when, and how many minutes were involved.

This record requires no more effort than the doodling most people engage in when talking over the telephone or listening to a visitor.

4. *Manuscripts.*—Few people outside an Office of Information have any idea how much research, fact sifting, and coordination may be required in the writing of press releases, speeches, statements, and announcements, or how many times a manuscript may have to be rewritten or

revised before it satisfies everyone. The file copy of each draft, therefore, should carry a notation on the cover page showing how much time was required in preparation, with a cumulative total noted on the cover of the final draft.

5. *Special Activities.*—This form, usually a blank sheet on which you can draw a line to separate each item, can be used to record all activities that do not fall into any of the categories listed above. Included will be notations of meetings, planning conferences, consultations with the boss. In addition to showing the time required, a record should also be made of the decisions.

Why have these records? To show press, public, budget, and appropriation officials what happens to the information dollar. A constant review of this information and the figures recorded will enable administrators to spot points where economies can be made, and services improved.

The techniques suggested are not perfect, but they are effective as a tool of measuring the services you perform.

More Direction from the Top

MORE direction of information from the top is frequently suggested.

This could be carried out by a high ranking official, as the Committee on Economic Development recommended, whose job would be to "counteract the present trend toward undue secrecy," and to "constantly press for the release of information."[13]

Coordination of information from the highest level in the Executive Branch of the Government is just as logical, it is argued, as is coordination of personnel policies or budget figures.

The top director of information would not only be responsible for stimulating an increasing flow of information to the public, but also would insure that information given out would be accurate and fully in accord with the plans, policies, and programs of the government as a whole.

When one official says, for example, that such and such is the case, and another official, apparently speaking with equal authority says the opposite, confusion, not freedom, of information is served, and public and press are left in a wilderness of doubt.

The best approach to the problem, some experts believe, would be to establish an Office of Information at the top level of the Executive Branch, not to supersede or be confused with the Press Secretary to the President. The official in charge would:

1. Review all statements on a national policy level to insure uniform expression through a variety of spokesmen.

2. Counsel and guide agencies on information policies, techniques and needs.

3. Be responsible for investigating and recommending elimination of duplicating, inefficient, and wasteful practices; special pleading and agency glorification; and conducting surveys of all information operations and requiring periodic reports from them.

4. Carry on a ceaseless war against overclassification, and otherwise strive for an increasing flow of factual information to the public.

5. Make public an annual review of the information services of the government, how many people are involved, and how much the cost.

6. Provide liaison with communication and information groups in civil and private life. An important function would be to encourage and bring about greater use of private agencies in accomplishing the domestic and overseas information programs.[14]

The mission of this office could be accomplished with a very small staff. It would not be a central information gathering and releasing agency, but a staff office to make sure that the information services of the various agencies, bureaus, and field offices are operating effectively and economically. It could save many times its cost.

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[13] As reported in the *Washington Post*, December 15, 1949, p. 1, col. 8.

[14] Compare this with the report on Information Services in the Executive Branch by Edward Stanley and Lawrence Sullivan to the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, September 28, 1948.

Conclusion

I CAN summarize the results of our studies and inquiries with the following:

1. Make sure the press has access to all information the public is entitled to in time for their deadlines. A free press is necessarily highly competitive and we must gear ourselves to the need for speed in making information available.

2. We can eliminate many distortions and inaccuracies by releasing full information, especially the unfavorable kind, just as soon as detected. Never hope or believe that unfavorable information will not leak out. It will, and when it does the play will be greater because it will be assumed that someone has been trying to cover up or "keep it in the family." One newspaper in commenting on this principle of public relations has pointed out how certain officials have brought great embarrassment on themselves by not telling about misdeeds in their agencies when they first found out about them. "Complete, fearless publicity about every imputation or possibility of wrongdoing . . . . is the public's only safeguard and the office holder's only protection."[15]

3. When a distortion or inaccuracy does appear, come out with the facts at once, and come out loud. If it takes a week or a month to give the answer the story may then be such old stuff that the answer will be buried instead of being placed on the front page, and the public will not know that the original story was not true.

A prominent member of the Senate, when certain government officials complained that their denials or refutations never caught up with the original stories, and that it does not do much good to deny them because denials "are not very newsy," gave this advice: "I suggest you do some table thumping and raising the voice in your denials . . . . to make them news," he said. "I think sometimes you are too mild-mannered."[16]

4. Most important of all, make the product unassailable. Good public relations depend upon superior performance. To dramatize the need for economical and efficient operation throughout an agency, some information officers have persuaded their bosses to put on an intensive drive to uncover every least bit of inefficiency, lack of economy or wrong doing, once each year like an annual spring housecleaning, with everyone in the agency urged to make suggestions and reveal weaknesses.

When performance is superior and everything is reported, an agency should have a good press.

No one will then need to ask what is wrong with government information.

And to tie this to one of the important things the *Public Personnel Review* and the Civil Service Assembly are concerned with, no one will have to worry much about the prestige of the civil servant. What has been outlined here will, it is believed, be a means of raising him high in the public regard.

[15] *Washington Daily News*, editorial, February 5, 1952.

[16] The Chairman of the Senate Military Appropriations Subcommittee, as reported in the *Washington Post*, February 7, 1952, p. 5, col. 1.

A Validation Study of an Examination for Prison Custodial Personnel . ROBERT H. LAWSON

A SERIOUS problem for the staff of any public personnel agency is finding the time and proper conditions to do test research. The legal restrictions surrounding selection techniques for public service are not conducive to research projects, to say nothing of the difficulty of finding staff time to do the work. It appears then that when an agency does a study, it is worth while to report it primarily for the methodology involved since often, as in this case, the results are not clear-cut nor are they of value to other agencies except as guides. The techniques used and the degree of success achieved with them, however, are of value to other agencies. It is in this light that this discussion is offered.

As part of its program of examination analysis and research, the examination staff of the California State Personnel Board in close co-operation with the California Department of Corrections made a study of the performance of a group of prison custodial personnel on a promotional examination given in March, 1950, for Correctional Sergeant and Correctional Lieutenant. These classes represent the second and third steps in the prison chain of command in California, the entrance level being Correctional Officer, formerly known as Guard. The Sergeant is roughly equivalent to a working foreman, while the Lieutenant is the first level of administration.

The two examinations were given concurrently, the first five tests constituting the examination for Sergeant, with one additional test for Lieutenant. The examination consisted of 190 items divided among the five sections as follows: Analytical Ability, 45 multiple-choice items; Institutional Organization and Supervision, 14 multiple-choice items; Penal Administration, 44 multiple-choice items; Criminology, 30 true-false items; and Departmental Rules and Care and Use of Firearms, 57 true-false items.

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Entrance Requirements

THE ENTRANCE requirements for Correctional Sergeant are one year as a Correctional Officer, and for Correctional Lieutenant, either two years as a Correctional Sergeant or three years as a Correctional Officer. Therefore, candidates for Sergeant were all officers, while candidates for Lieutenant included both Sergeants and Officers. Both examinations were on a promotional basis only.

This arrangement offered an excellent opportunity for research because it resulted in a group of incumbent Sergeants taking the same examination under the same conditions as those competing to become Sergeants. Therefore, it was decided to explore two points in connection with the examination: (1) Did the Sergeants as a group do better than the Correctional Officers? (2) Did the examination rankings of the Sergeants reflect the true differences as displayed in their work performances?

As the following statistics indicate, the Sergeants did significantly better than the officers:

	Officers		Sergeants	
Test Score	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
151 – 160	2	.4	8	8.5
141 – 150	18	3.8	8	8.5
131 – 140	61	12.5	22	23.4
121 – 130	120	25.1	31	33.0
111 – 120	138	28.9	23	24.5
101 – 110	93	19.4	2	2.1
91 – 100	33	6.9	0	
0 – 90	13	2.7	0	
Total	478	100.0	94	100.0

Passing Score, 126 — Maximum Score, 190
Officers Pass, 138 (28.9%) — Sergeants Pass, 53 (56.4%)

	Officers	Sergeants
Mean	117.28	128.99
Median	118.6	128.75
Standard Deviation	15.75	11.95
Third Quartile	127.8	137.4
First Quartile	109.1	120.1

It would appear from these figures that the examination was valid to the extent that those with experience as Sergeants did considerably better as a group than did those without such experience. While there might be some question raised about the sizable group of Sergeants who did not equal the passing score set for prospective Sergeants, it should be noted that this passing score was set higher than in some former examinations. Less than 30% of the candidates for Sergeant passed, whereas 56% of the present Sergeants would have passed at this level.

The second part of the study was to determine the validity with which the examination ranked the Sergeants. This required some measure of on-the-job effectiveness to use as a criterion against which to compare examination performances. Accordingly, a five-point rating scale was designed with the assistance of the headquarters staff of the Department and distributed to each of the institutions. It later appeared evident that the participation in the development of this rating scale by those who were to act as raters would have contributed to a better understanding and utilization of the scale on their part.

Instructions accompanying these rating scales called for at least three separate and independent ratings of each man if it was possible. In most cases, it was expected that ratings would be obtained from the Associate Warden, Captain, and Lieutenant, who constitute the chain of command in California prisons. This did not always prove to be the case, however. The level of the raters varied with the institution, and the number of raters for each man varied from one to five. In four of the five institutions all of the Sergeants were rated by the same set of raters; in the fifth institution one rater rated all of the men with several others each rating a few of the men. One institution used five raters, three used three raters, and the fifth, as already stated, used a varying number. Of the 94 men included in the study, 12 were given five ratings, 66 were given three ratings, 11 were given two, and five had only one rating.

The Rating Scale

THE RATING scale was a graphic one with a range from 0 to 5 for each of five traits: leadership, decisiveness, alertness, job knowledge, and adaptability. There was also an over-all rating wherein the Sergeant was assigned to the upper, middle, or lower third of the group of Sergeants in the rater's institution. The over-all rating correlated .88 with the total of the five trait ratings, showing a high degree of consistency for the raters.

The reliability of each of the five test sections was calculated by the split-half technique and corrected by the Spearman-Brown method. These reliabilities were respectively .855; .603; .565; .441; and .609.

The reliability of the ratings was established by averaging the rank order correlations between the raters in each institution. These average reliabilities ranged from .64 to .86 for four of the institutions. Because of the varying number of raters used, no reliability could be obtained for the fifth institution. These reliabilities were considered more than adequate for a scale of this type and were the most gratifying results of this portion of the project in view of the correlations subsequently obtained.

Despite the high average reliabilities, there was considerable disagreement among the raters in some individual cases. Furthermore, the comparison of the numerical totals for the five traits to the over-all rating showed the raters were applying the scale with considerable variation despite the high correlation between the two ratings. Men who had over-all ratings in the upper third had numerical totals varying from 15 to 25; men in the middle third had totals from 9 to 22; men in the lowest third ranged from 5 to 17.

The distribution of the over-all ratings showed 36% in the upper third, 40% in the middle third, and 23% in the lower third. The somewhat smaller proportion of men in the lower third may be accounted for by the fact that some of those who would have been placed in the lowest group probably did not file for the examination.

As a further check on the ratings, they

were correlated with length of service as a Sergeant since such ratings might have been merely a reflection of the time spent on the job rather than true differences in job performance. This correlation was .15, indicating that the raters had not weighted this factor heavily.

The Results

THE Pearsonian correlation was also used as the measure of relationship between the criterion and the test scores. The correlation between the examination score and the numerical total on the ratings was .066, and that between the examination and the over-all rating was .008. Tests I, III, and V correlated with the rating on the five traits: .115; .008; and .109, respectively. Some correlations of ratings on the separate traits and scores on the individual tests were also low.

The ratings for each institution were correlated separately with examination scores to see if the ratings from one or two of the institutions might be unduly influencing these totals. These correlations ranged from: —.34 to .125, substantiating the figures obtained from the total group.

In referring back to the Sergeants who did not achieve a passing score, a correlation of the "pass-fail" groups with the rankings on the rating scale yielded a biserial correlation of .06, showing that the composition of the two groups was not related to the supervisors' ratings.

It is evident from these figures that the examination and the rating scale were not evaluating the same factors. Some differences between the trait ratings and the over-all ratings are also evidence that there were factors not included in the rating scale which are important in the evaluation of a Sergeant's work.

The Difficulties Involved

THE DIFFERENCE in the results obtained in the two parts of this study emphasizes the difficulty of using an examination to perform two separate functions—to act as a predictor of job success and to reflect differences in job performance where there is considerable difference in job content between the lower and higher jobs as there was in this case. The selection device should emphasize the potentiality of the candidate; the examination to rank incumbents should emphasize the utilization of this potentiality. Trying to combine both in one examination is apt to result either in doing a good job of neither or in overemphasizing one to the exclusion of the other. Inasmuch as this examination was purely a selection device with the ranking of incumbents only experimental, the results of the second part of the study should not be interpreted as showing a lack of validity on the part of the examination.

Other factors found among the group of incumbents in this position also reduced the expectation that their examination performances would rank them validly. The most important of these was the homogeneous nature of the group of Sergeants. They had successfully passed an examination including both a written test and an oral interview which, even considering variations in quality of competition, served to eliminate the lower portions of the distribution. Furthermore, all but six had completed probationary periods by this time. The homogeneity is further emphasized by the figures on length of service. Only 6 had served more than five years in the position and 14 less than one year. Presumably, at least part of the top of the distribution was also missing due to the promotion to Lieutenant of the abler Sergeants.[1]

Another basic difficulty was in comparing men with a wide variation of assignments, some of which may be supervisory and some not, to say nothing of the problem of comparing men from different institutions. The possibility should not be overlooked that in some cases the examination score may actually be a true indication of a man's potentiality which has not been fully developed or recognized by his supervisor.

[1] Prison personnel in California did not come under civil service until January, 1945, shortly after the creation of a centralized Department of Corrections. Since that time, the increase in inmate population and number of institutions has caused a considerable increase in the size of the staff, consequently rapid promotions for a large group of personnel.

Another possible reason for the low correlation between scores and criterion may be the use of a supervisorial rating as the criterion. However, in such a position as this one it is difficult to conceive of any other measure of job performance. In any future studies with this occupational group there should be some imaginative experimenting with different measures in an effort to find one which is more objective and meaningful.

Conclusions

In summary then, the examination given did have apparent validity as a selection device inasmuch as it resulted in significant differences in performance between the experienced and the inexperienced groups. As a tool to evaluate the on-the-job differences of Sergeants, however, it did not measure the same factors that the rating scale did. It would appear from these results that the test can be considered a useful device for the selection of Sergeants following the revisions indicated by the tabulation and by the item analysis which should raise the reliability of certain of the test sections to more acceptable levels.

As a study of methodology this reveals many of the problems involved in this type of research. The difficulty of establishing a clear-cut criterion is again underlined, and it is at this stage that the personnel agency must enlist the aid of the operating agency for whom the people being studied work. To establish meaningful objective criteria of job success is a difficult, time-consuming task in which line supervisors must play a leading role. This is the phase of research which needs emphasis before a comprehensive program of examination validation can be conducted.

It Takes Two to Make a Bargain

We all want good government; but in a democracy, good government is not something that can be handed down from on top. It must grow up from the bottom. The moral and ethical standards of a democratic government are an accurate reflection of the standards of the people as a whole. Actually, the fact that the public servant who sells a favor is removed from office in public disgrace, while the purchaser of the favor (and instigator of the sale) usually escapes any comparable notice, demonstrates clearly that our standard of morality for the public business is signally higher than our standard for private business. That is as it should be, up to a point; but we cannot expect to maintain indefinitely two standards that have nothing in common.—*Robert Ramspeck, Chairman, U.S. Civil Service Commission.*

Seniority and Employee-Management Relations . . . . JULIUS E. EITINGTON

SENIORITY is one of the strongest forces which influence employee-management relations. Management at all levels is acutely conscious of it and is under constant pressure to provide it with full recognition. This recognition results in the granting of rewards which run the gamut from those of a relatively minor and nonfinancial character, such as enumerating the names on the office routing slip by seniority rather than by grade or alphabetically, to others pecuniary in nature and otherwise more significant.

Searching answers to a number of questions about seniority are needed. How does seniority influence federal personnel administration? What forms does it take? How does it affect employee morale and initiative? What is the relationship between seniority, security, and superannuation? What is the proper role of seniority? What remedies are required to meet operating problems produced by seniority pressures? What is the role of top management and the personnel office in coping with these problems? The paragraphs which follow endeavor to answer these queries.

Seniority and Organization Efficiency

MUCH has been written in recent years about the plight of the older but efficient worker who "can't get in."[1] On the other hand, little attention appears to have been given to the problem of the senior but not too efficient worker who "can't be got out."

The tie-in between unit efficiency and unlimited tenure is readily apparent when we consider the stages of organizational growth. As every organization and methods examiner knows, an organization develops goals, standards of attainment, outlooks, and methods to facilitate its over-all missions. Initially, some of these policies and procedures may be controversial and require considerable persuasion and compromise if they are to be "accepted." In time, however, the patterns of behavior become well established, generally approved, and even immutable. With an adequate dose of inbreeding, this phenomenon of administrative rigidity is fully ensured.

To some extent the energetic executive can stimulate his staff to mitigate this ossification process. However, he may find that he is saddled with one or many staff members who are not only incapable of further growth, but actually cannot accomplish required objectives. It is not always, of course, a matter of an employee's deterioration; quite frequently, job requirements may have changed.

If certain superannuated personnel "just don't have it," the personnel regulations provide for their reassignment or even removal. But taking such drastic action towards employees having considerable seniority is something discussed primarily in university courses in personnel administration. Thus, many earnest attempts at improvement in organization, methods, and procedures are doomed to run into a stone wall of "people."

And even if much needed reassignments occasionally are accomplished, the methods employed may not help the service. These devices include the establishment of jobs of most necessity, kicking individuals upstairs, overallocating the position of lesser responsibility to which the incumbent is to be reassigned to protect his grade and salary, etc.

Seniority and Promotion Policy

AFTER much urging by the Federal Per-

[1] For example, see the recent article by Walter G. O'Connell, "The Problems of Age Barriers in Personnel Selection," *Personnel*, May, 1951, pp. 461-71.

• JULIUS E. EITINGTON was recently appointed Chief, Classification Branch, Federal Civil Defense Administration. This article was written when Mr. Eitington was Chief, Classification Branch, National Park Service.

sonnel Council and the Civil Service Commission, it now is fashionable for most agencies and their constituent offices and installations to have a written statement which outlines promotion policy. Despite such glowing documents, management still is frequently guided in the administration of its promotion policy by considerations such as these:

1. How long has he been with the organization?
2. Was he in the outfit before 19—?
3. Can we promote Henry without taking care of Joe, too?
4. Why not promote her to the vacancy since she'll retire in two years anyhow?
5. If we fill the Assistant Chief Position from the outside, shouldn't we fill the top job from within?

If the qualifications of the eligibles were equal, few would quarrel with promotional decisions based on the above "factors." But too often merely "having been around" is likely to be a major promotional determinant.[2] Consequently, the younger, more efficient and more aggressive employee may find it difficult to comprehend the wide gap between promotional policy and its actual application. In fact, the writer recalls one instance of a well-qualified employee who complained to the personnel officer about an obvious seniority-type promotion. The personnel officer listened attentively to this complaint, leaned back in his chair, smiled knowingly, and said: "You know, you may feel that the promotion in this case overemphasized seniority. But the same system which seems to penalize you now, will work to your advantage in the long run."

From an efficiency standpoint, promotion on a seniority basis to lower-level positions is, perhaps, not too serious. But when such policies apply to supervisory and executive jobs as well, the service is bound to suffer. As one writer states:

> . . . merit [should] be the sole basis for promotion to higher responsibilities. Seniority should have no recognized standing. Human nature being as it is, seniority will play a sufficient part without giving it any formal place in the promotion system. In all corners of the administrative group, constant effort must be made to guard against the promotion of second-rate men to first-rate responsibilities.[3]

From time to time, it may be essential to look to the outside to secure the requisite talent for higher-grade positions. But seniority factors frequently arise to limit the promotional area. In fact, one research study found that of six general areas of employee dissatisfaction, "filling higher ranking jobs by employing outsiders" was ranked first.[4]

In its endeavor to satisfy the senior employee, management all too often forgets that there is not necessarily a high correlation between time spent on the job and the ability to perform a job. As one observer stated sententiously: "Twenty years' experience may merely mean one year's experience repeated twenty times." Rare indeed are executives like the one who, upon receiving a request from an employee for a promotion on the grounds that he had been with the organization twelve years, had always done what was required, was never late, etc., quietly replied: "Those are merely the reasons why you haven't been fired."

Seniority and Position Classification

ACCORDING to standard classification theory, positions are classified solely on the basis of duties and responsibilities. Thus, should it be considered necessary on occasion to reward employees solely for long and faithful service, other phases of the personnel program come into play. These compensations may include within-grade promotions, longevity pay increases, long grants

[2] Other undesirable "criteria" also serve to ensure or deny promotions, including personal favoritism, the possible transfer of an employee to a higher-grade position, age, sex, marital status, size of family, etc.

[3] Leonard D. White, *Government Career Service* (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1935), p. 33.

[4] The other five factors were ranked by the employees as follows:
2. Favoritism in assigning work
3. Being taken off a job before finishing it
4. Apprentice training
5. Understanding of promotion policy
6. Promotions of men not being in accordance with ability.

James W. Campbell, "An Attitude Survey in a Typical Manufacturing Firm," *Personnel Psychology,* Vol. 1, No. 1, Spring, 1948, p. 35.

of annual leave, special parking privileges, promotions to higher grade vacancies, service awards, citations, etc.

In actual practice, however, awards other than changes to higher grades generally do not provide the remuneration and incentive which senior employees believe management should offer. Promotions to vacant positions, particularly in an old-line agency, may be deemed by them to be too infrequent. In consequence, the classification system is called upon to assuage the "aggrieved" employee, and considerations similar to those mentioned above in connection with promotional criteria often become the rationale for reclassification actions. The detrimental effect of "seniority bonuses" upon the classification structure frequently is ignored by management in the zeal to placate a disgruntled senior employee.

Seniority pressures also are exerted upon other phases of the classification process. For example, over long periods of time many employees will assume new responsibilities and perform added duties. Similarly, responsibilities may diminish and duties drop off, necessitating a change to lower grade. Grade reductions also may be required in order to conform to new position classification standards. But as often as not, attempts at the reduction of the grade of an employee possessed of long service, regardless of the classification merits of the case, are very likely to run afoul of the prevailing mores. In fact, even a change in title (i.e., one which seems less impressive) required by new position classification standards may be resisted by management because of the possible effect on the senior employee's morale.

It should be noted also that seniority factors tend to become operative under widely varying time intervals, including periods which ordinarily might best be termed "short-term." Thus, an employee who has been functioning on a job for a year or two, but on a permanent basis, may expect a higher grade than that of a fellow-worker who performs identical duties on only a seasonal or temporary basis. Management, too, is impressed frequently by that form of seniority argument.

Seniority and Employee Initiative

It is considered to be a sound principle of personnel management to exercise careful thought and provide full attention to the needs, wishes, and dissatisfactions of employees who have been associated with the organization for long periods of time. Such treatment is unquestionably basic to the morale of the work force. The senior employee, of course, expects such deference, and the newcomer generally is ready to grant such consideration to him.

All too often, however, this principle has been distorted to provide special privileges for the senior employee regardless of his actual value to the organization. Under such circumstances, not only is the initiative and morale of the many who are not so favored likely to suffer, but even the initiative of those in the favored group may be undermined. Illustrative of this point is the case of a mediocre employee who had received a number of promotions and generous reclassifications through the years. He was at the top of the grade and his superiors finally considered his position not subject to further advancement through classification procedures. Accordingly, an attempt was made to reassign him to a different job in a somewhat related field of work, but at the same grade. It was hoped that in the long run the new line of work would afford greater promotional opportunity. However, the employee refused the offer of reassignment because he *knew* his superiors would find some way to take care of him on his present and much lighter assignment.

It also is apparent that the motivation of employees on the bottom of the promotional ladder is made exceedingly difficult when their opportunities for advancement are blocked by senior employees ensconced in key positions who merely are accumulating retirement credits, or by others whose primary claim to fame is that "they've been around a long while." Under such circumstances the more aggressive and capable worker will make himself available for an exit interview at the earliest possible opportunity.

Seniority and Security

Most personnel systems, including that of

the federal Government, recognize seniority as a major element in job security. This circumstance is quite understandable, since there is impressive evidence that security is frequently a stronger motivation for employees than either wages or working conditions.[5] In fact, in the 1930's young girls in industrial centers such as Detroit did not ask their boy friends about their resources or their ability to support them. Their more pertinent query was: "How much seniority do you have?"[6] Job satisfaction may depend also on other factors, of course, looming more important at particular times and fluctuating in intensity in response to changes in the individual and the environment.[7]

Organized labor naturally is intensely concerned with the problem as illustrated by the following thought-provoking statement made by one union official:

> My position in respect to the steel workers is, of course, the position of all people who work for a living. The only thing they have on which is based any security in life is their job. And therefore the union's position is that the seniority rights based upon this length of service are property rights, just as basic as a man's right to his own home or to his own car. In fact, we feel that they are more important and more basic because if a man loses his job and doesn't get another job very soon, he loses his car and he loses his home. So that we feel that seniority as far as the working man is concerned goes to the very root of acquiring some security in this life.[8]

Thus, layoff policies which are based primarily on seniority meet with employee favor since they know where they stand and possible management discrimination is eliminated. From a management standpoint, if supervisors have been diligent and systematic in eliminating the unfit (admittedly, this may be a theoretical assumption), organization efficiency should not be unduly hampered by such policies. In any case, even if a few marginal workers are retained in the process, the organization still would be benefited as a consequence of the maintenance of the morale of the work force.

It should be emphasized, however, that a layoff policy which is guided primarily by seniority must be accompanied by a personnel program which is marked by the very careful selection of new workers, the development of weak employees to meet established job requirements, and the reassignment or separation of inefficient personnel. In other words, supervisors should cope with the problem on a day-to-day basis, rather than to wait for a reduction-in-force to weed out the unfit.

In sum, since seniority as a primary factor in reduction-in-force is desired by the employees and should not ordinarily work too great a hardship on management, it would seem to be an acceptable policy. But what is not desirable or essential is the undue emphasis of seniority on other phases of the personnel and management program as discussed heretofore.

Courses of Corrective Action

To TREAT seniority casually or to underestimate employees' desires which stem from it, would be a major violation of the psycho-dynamics of personnel administration. Nevertheless, if our merit system is to rise above the "swivel service" level, the more serious abuses which arise from questionable seniority practices demand our

[5] See the study conducted by Clifford E. Jurgensen, "What Applicants Look for in a Company," *Personnel Psychology,* Vol. 1, No. 4, Winter 1948, pp. 433-45, wherein security was stated by job applicants to be the most important factor to them. Security was found to be more important to men than women, and more important to married men than to single men. Its importance decreased as education increased. Mechanical workers were more interested in security than clerical workers, and sales applicants were relatively least interested in security. The other factors ranked by the applicants in the order of their importance were: (2) Advancement; (3) Type of work; (4) Company; (5) Pay; (6) Co-workers; (7) Supervisor; (8) Hours; (9) Working conditions; and (10) Benefits. The study extended to 3,723 applicants based on data collected in the two years immediately following V-J Day in August 1945.

[6] An excellent discussion of current seniority problems in industry is contained in "Proceedings of a Conference on Seniority," October 21, 1950, sponsored by the University of Wisconsin Industrial Relations Center and the LaCross Vocational and Adult Schools, mimeographed report.

[7] Mason Haire and Josephine S. Gottsdanker, "Factors Influencing Industrial Morale," *Personnel,* May, 1951, pp. 445-54.

[8] "The Importance to the Worker of Length of Service on a Job," mimeographed reprint of a radio broadcast of February 15, 1947, Labor Management Forum, Radio Station WEEI, Boston.

earnest attention. Even if the more vital personnel decisions based on seniority were only occasional, its influence still would be cause for alarm since a few concessions of this nature create precedents which ultimately become hard to live with.

Having identified the more apparent problem areas, what corrective measures merit consideration?

It generally is recognized that personnel procedures should be sufficiently flexible to permit the reassignment of an employee who cannot meet at least the principal job requirements. But under existing statute (The Classification Act of 1949, as amended) the federal administrator must resort to a host of circuitous devices to accomplish what should be a relatively simple reassignment matter. This circumstance arises because on reassignment it is not now possible to pay an employee a salary in excess of the top pay step of the grade to which the position is allocated. Therefore, the law should be amended to permit reassignments to progress in this fashion. If a reassignment cannot be accomplished to a *bona fide* vacancy at the incumbent's present grade, the reassignment should be made to a position of lower grade *but with no reduction in salary*. This approach to the problem is highly significant since it will allow the employee to preserve his existing standard of living; it may, in some cases, also enable the reassignee to preserve his pride and prestige. Reassignments of this nature would have this added advantage: since the job which the reassignee is to occupy is properly graded (although the incumbent may be overpaid for that particular grade), a misallocation is avoided, thereby preventing the creation of classification comparisons which otherwise tend to weaken the organization's grade structure.

The following question relative to the proposal might be raised: How would the reassignee's fellow workers regard this obvious violation of the principle of "equal pay for equal work"? Unquestionably, some employees might well resent that pay policy. On the other hand, most employees (at least in the federal service) are grade rather than pay conscious. This is quite understandable since the salary steps overlap within most of the grades, and employees, for various reasons, are often paid at the top step of the grade, or even in excess of the grade if longevity pay increases have been received. Actually, most employees should favor a plan of this sort since it would create greater promotional opportunity by removing inept individuals from higher-level positions.

Our retirement laws fail to permit the early retirement of superannuated employees who are not able to meet job requirements and who for various administrative reasons are not reassignable. In fact, the retirement system merely encourages such employees to "sit it out" to the detriment of organization efficiency and the discouragement of co-workers or subordinates. Thus, changes in the laws are needed to encourage retirement at a much earlier age, with many less years of creditable service, and with a *full* rather than a partial annuity.

Might an employee who wishes earlier retirement feign ineptitude? Theoretically it would be possible for an employee to do so. In actual practice, however, most employees would be too conscientious and honest to resort to such subterfuges.

Would the employee deemed to be weak accept retirement? Undoubtedly, many would if it were financially attractive to them. Those who might object would be retired involuntarily, after an adequate hearing had been held as to their fitness.

The proposed amendments to existing laws are intended to recognize officially what is generally known to exist in fact —namely, our reassignment and separation procedures (via removal or retirement) are not adequate to replace "the dead wood." Even the so-called "tough" administrator balks at the removal or even reassignment of a senior employee except in the most glaringly egregious instances. After all, no one wishes to be the cause of another man's loss of livelihood or reduction in his prestige, particularly if the incumbent involved is somewhat advanced in age and has rendered quite a few years of service.

Both proposals may appear to be eco-

nomically unsound since they may involve an increase in over-all retirement and salary costs. But it is the writer's opinion that this added cost would be more than offset by increased efficiency and augmented employee morale.

In respect to the seniority problems which arise as a result of deviations from promotion policy and position classification principles, it is apparent that no cure-all can be advanced. However, if these departures are to be controlled, the initiative must come from top management in the form of a positive program designed to alter existing attitudes. This program could be directed at supervisors at supervisory training sessions and at employees through the media of the orientation course, the employee handbook, the organization newspaper, and special educational releases.

Oh Human Nature!

In this election year of 1952, it seems appropriate to reprint some observations made by Benjamin Franklin "on my reading history, in Library, May 19, 1731."

That the great affairs of the world, the wars, revolutions, etc., are carried on and affected by parties.

That the view of these parties is their present general interest, or what they take to be such.

That the different views of these different parties occasion all confusion.

That while a party is carrying on a general design, each man has his particular private interest in view.

That as soon as a party has gain'd its general point, each member becomes intent upon his particular interest; which, thwarting others, breaks that party into divisions, and occasions more confusion.

That few in public affairs act from a meer *(sic)* view of the good of their country, whatever they may pretend; and tho' their actings bring real good to their country, yet men primarily considered that their own and their country's interest was united, and did not act from a principle of benevolence.

That fewer still, in public affairs, act with a view to the good of mankind.

There seems to me at present to be great occasion for raising a United Party for Virtue, by forming the virtuous and good men of all nations into a regular body, to be govern'd by suitable good and wise rules, which good and wise men may probably be more unanimous in their obedience to, than common people are to common laws.

I at present think that whoever attempts this right, and is well qualified, can not fail of pleasing God, and of meeting with success.—*Benjamin Franklin's Autobiography.*

The Work Hour As a Method of Crediting Sick and Annual Leave . . . .

WILLIAM DANIELSON
and JOHN IGLAUER

A NEW idea for an equitable and easy-to-administer sick and annual leave provision was incorporated in the new charter of the City of Harper Woods, Michigan, which was adopted in late 1951. This charter was drafted with the consulting advice of the Michigan Municipal League and the Municipal Personnel Service. Previous leave provisions have been based on a unit of measurement of the work day, calendar day, or calendar week. The Harper Woods provision is instead based on the work hour. It reads as follows:

D. *Annual Leave and Sick Leave.* The Commission shall provide by rules or regulations for annual leave (vacations) and sick leave for employees and officers in the classified service, and for the accumulation of such unused leave. The minimum amount of annual leave and of sick leave earned per year, respectively, for each full-time employee and officer in the classified service shall be twice the number of hours in his average standard work week (exclusive of overtime) at the time such annual leave is taken. In the case of such an employee or officer with less than one year's full-time service for the township or city, such leave shall be prorated in proportion to his length of such service.

The amount of annual or sick leave used by an employee or officer in the classified service during any leave shall be equal to the number of regularly scheduled hours he would otherwise have worked during his absence on such leave.

It is provided further that the minimum leaves provided for herein may be temporarily suspended during any period of emergency declared by resolution of the Council.

Length of Work Week Varies

IN HARPER WOODS, and in most other cities, various employee groups have different length work weeks. It is not unusual in Michigan to have, for example, city hall employees on a 40-hour week, police on a 44-hour week, firemen on a 63-hour duty schedule, and utility employees on a 48-hour week.

All employees do not work the same number of hours in a day; firemen work a 24-hour shift; some city hall employees may be scheduled to work less than 8 hours in a day; other employees may work only 4 hours on Saturdays.

All employees may not work the same number of days in a week; on a 63-hour week, a fireman may be scheduled to work either two, three, or four 24-hour shifts in any given week; other employees may be scheduled to work five, five and one-half, or six days per week.

Obviously, where various employee groups are scheduled to work different work weeks, no leave rule can be written in terms of days or weeks without being inequitable in some degree, and without causing administrative difficulties.

Using the Work Hour As a Common Base

THE ONLY unit of time that is common to all work week schedules is the work hour. The Harper Woods charter commission wished to provide for a minimum of "two weeks" annual leave per year. Therefore, the employee is entitled to two times the number of hours he would have been scheduled to work per week.

In a year's time, the stenographer on a 40-hour week will earn (2 x 40) 80 annual leave hours credit; the patrolman on a 44-hour week will earn (2 x 44) 88 hours. When the stenographer takes her two-week vacation, the 80 hours that she would have been scheduled to work will be subtracted from her account. Similarly, when the patrolman takes his two-week vacation, 88 hours will be subtracted from his account.

The fireman, on a 24-hour shift basis, presents a different situation. In any given two-week period during the year, on an average 63-hour-a-week duty schedule, a

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fireman will work from five to seven 24-hour shifts. The fireman is entitled to 2 x 63) 126 annual leave hours credit. If a fireman would take his vacation in a two-week period containing only five days, he would use 4 x 24 or 120 hours of leave and would have six remaining hours of annual leave. If he would take his vacation in a two-week period containing six (144 hours) or seven (168 hours) 24-hour shift days, he would reecive more than the 126 annual leave hours to which he is entitled. Unless a work-hour system of charging leave is used, firemen will get too little or too much leave compared with other employees.

The biggest problem in administering the more common annual leave rules—that of divided vacation leaves—is eliminated in Harper Woods. Under other systems there is no satisfactory and simple method of charging a three-hour leave, or a Saturday leave, or a two-and-one-half day leave. Does a person who takes two weeks vacation during the winter when Saturday is a working day have the same amount charged against his leave as a person who is gone for two weeks during the summer when Saturday is not a working day?

Under the Harper Woods system these problems are automatically and equitably solved by recording the number of hours absence from regularly scheduled duty.

The work hour basis is perfectly flexible where the city wishes to limit the amount of leave that may be accumulated. For example, if a city wishes to limit the amount of accrued sick leave to that which could be earned in 5 years, at the rate of two weeks per year, the rule would provide that "no employee shall accumulate more sick leave hour credits than 10 times the number of hours in his average standard work week."

Should a change in work week occur, the problem arises as to how to credit accumulated leave on the basis of the new work week schedule. As an example, the police department may have its work week reduced from 44 hours to 40. One patrolman has accumulated one year of annual leave credit, 88 hours on the old 44-hour schedule. In order to be equitable, his accumulated leave credit hours should be converted to those that would have been earned on the new 40-hour week schedule.

This can be done by multiplying his accumulated leave hours (88) times the hours in the new work week, divided by the hours in the former work week $\left(88 \times \frac{40}{44}\right)$. Thus, the patrolman would be credited with 80 leave credit hours upon the date the 40-hour week was effected.

The purpose of any sick and annual leave rule is to establish a method of awarding equitable leave benefits to all employees. Many rules governing leave, in coping with the problem of different work weeks among employee groups, often choose to deal with each group separately in an effort to effect equal benefits. This method, however, is cumbersome and difficult to administer.

Advantages of Work Hour Plan

THE USE of the work hour fulfills the basic purpose of a leave regulation. The work hour device guarantees that all employees will receive equal leave benefits. The work hour is easily understood and may be easily administered.

The leave regulation based on the work hour has the additional advantage of solving problems that were formerly difficult to administer equitably, such as the problem of charging leave to the employee who takes a few days' leave at a time, or who is absent only part of a day; or the problem of awarding leave to the shift employee.

A work hour leave regulation credits leave on the basis of the hours that the employee would have been required to work (exclusive of overtime) had he been present on the job. The work week lengths automatically adjust, under the work hour basis, to provide all employees with equal leave benefits.

If all employees in a jurisdiction have the same work week schedule, there is no problem and leave may be expressed by any unit of time desired. However, where different work weeks are used within an organization, the work hour method of crediting leave is suggested as an easily administered means of awarding equal leave benefits to all employees.

Rating Stenography by Machine . MARCIA BOYNTON

A PROCEDURE that permits the machine rating of stenographic tests has recently been put into use by the U. S. Civil Service Commission. It does not involve any change in the way the tests are dictated. However, it does not require the competitor to make any typewritten transcript of the dictated material.

Instead, the competitor is given a partial transcript like that shown on page 79. Although more than half the words dictated are represented by blanks in this transcript, the first word of each sentence is given, together with enough scattered words to build a frame of the material. The stenographer reads his[1] notes and compares them with the partial transcript. When he comes to a blank in the transcript, his notes should tell him what word belongs there.

This is where the device to permit machine scoring comes in. At the side of the partial transcript is an alphabetic list of words, each followed by a letter, A, B, C, or D. By means of this list, the stenographer translates the word for each blank into one of the letters. If he finds the word in the list, there will be an A, B, C, or D printed after the word, and that letter is his answer for the blank. If he does not find the word, his answer for the blank is "E." The final step is a simple transfer of answers to the proper spaces on a regular machine-scored answer sheet.

On page 79 there is an illustration of part of a transcript booklet, the instructions given, the partial transcript, and a word list. Below are a few sentences from the sample dictation furnished with the announcement of the examination.

In recent years there has been a great increase in the need for capable stenographers, not only in business offices but also in public service agencies, both governmental and private. The high schools and business schools in many parts of the country have tried to meet this need by offering complete commercial courses. . . .

Many people tend to think this test has no difficulty; they suggest that anyone could use a little reasoning to guess the correct answers. However, in a transcript five times as long as that given below, six errors is the poorest performance acceptable for a stenographer; it is suggested that, without giving yourself the benefit of referring again to the dictated sentences, you attempt to complete the transcript without making more than one error.

What Is Known About Its Effectiveness

THERE is little room for arguing the fact that the person who takes dictation and produces a complete and accurate transcript demonstrates stenographic ability. Complete transcripts are therefore used as a criterion against which comparisons are made in our evaluation of tests that permit machine scoring.

Before the new examination procedure was introduced, and while complete transcripts were still typed, the U. S. Civil Service Commission conducted trials of a machine-scored form at the close of some examinations. Competitors who had just completed typed transcripts from 3 minutes of dictation voluntarily remained in the examining room to transcribe the same notes again, using the new printed transcript booklet, word lists, and answer sheet. Comparison was made of results from the two kinds of tests. For one group of 37 competitors they correlated .81.

The test measures something more than stenographic ability, since it includes the clerical tasks of finding the words in lists and transferring the answers to the answer sheet. This additional requirement is no drawback so long as test results are indicative of stenographic ability. Transcript booklets and answer sheets are being com-

[1] Although the great majority of stenographer competitors are women, there are jobs for which men are wanted especially.

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The TRANSCRIPT and WORD LIST for part of the above dictation are similar to those each competitor will receive for the dictation exercise. Many words have been left out of the TRANSCRIPT. Compare your notes with it and, when you come to a blank space in the TRANSCRIPT, decide what word (or words) belongs in the space. For example, you will find that the word "there" belongs in blank No. 1.

Look at the WORD LIST to see whether you can find the missing word. Notice what letter (A, B, C, or D) is printed beside it, and write that letter in the blank. For example, the word "there" is listed, followed by the letter *C*. We have already written *C* in blank No. 1 to show you how you are to record your choice. Now decide what belongs in each of the other blanks. You are to write *E* if the exact answer is NOT listed. You may also write the word (or words), or the shorthand for it, if you wish. The same choice may belong in more than one blank.

ALPHABETIC WORD LIST

Write *E* if the answer is NOT listed.

advertising—A	many—D
agencies—D	marked—A
almost—C	met—A
also—C	most—C
and—D	need—D
business—B	offering—D
but—A	only—B
claimed—B	opening—A
colleges—C	parts—A
complete—B	private—C
country—A	schools—D
demand—B	sections—B
especially—D	the need—A
even—B	their—D
government—B	there—C
great—C	to complete—C
has been—D	to meet—C
high schools—A	to offer—B
in—C	trained—C
in government—A	tried—A

TRANSCRIPT

In recent years ___*C*___ ______ a ______
1 2 3

increase ______ ______ for ______ stenographers,
4 5 6

not ______ ______ ______ offices ______ ______
7 8 9 10 11

in public ______ ______, both ______ and
12 13 14

______. The ______ and business ______
15 16 17

in ______ ______ ______ ______ have
18 19 20 21

______ ______ this need by ______ ______
22 23 24 25

commercial courses. . . .

(For the next sentences there would be another word list, if the entire sample dictation were transcribed.)

You will be given a special 5-place answer sheet on which your answers can be scored by an electric machine. Each number on the answer sheet stands for the blank with the same number in the transcript. Blacken the space between the dotted lines below the letter that is the same as the letter that you wrote in the transcript. If you have not finished writing letters in the blanks in the transcript, or if you wish to make sure that you have lettered them correctly, *you may continue to use your notes after you begin marking the answer sheet.*

EXHIBIT I. PART OF SAMPLES OF THE TESTS FOR STENOGRAPHER AND TYPIST EXAMINATIONS.

pared to determine the extent to which stenographers make clerical errors in the transfer to answer sheets. Among 132 competitors, most of those who made inaccurate transfers were such extremely poor stenographers that they can be disregarded; two who made clerical errors were nevertheless eligible; there was only *one* borderline competitor who would have been eligible if he had not made the clerical error.

There are a few kinds of transcription errors that a competitor cannot make on the machine-scored tests; for example, he does not have an opportunity to misspell or to make typographical errors. Failure of a test to measure spelling and typing is not a defect in an examination that has a spelling section in its general test and a separate typing test. However, with spelling and typing not measured, it can be expected that the correlation of machine-

scored answers with typewritten transcripts will not be so high as it would otherwise be.

Earlier trials and comparisons between typewritten and somewhat similar forms for machine scoring had given results almost as encouraging, as will be shown later.

Undoubtedly, comparisons were affected by the fact that competitors had studied their notes enough to transcribe them before they were requested to take machine-scored tests from the same notes. Additional studies are also being made with one dictation exercise transcribed completely on the typewriter and a second exercise transcribed by machine-scored procedure. For one group of 26 students who made such trial of two 3-minute dictations, the correlation between the results was .79.

Development of Machine Scoring

AMONG the forms developed in the attempt[2] to secure a procedure that would permit scoring by machine, the two new ones that seemed most promising were given extensive trial by the Commission. After the examiner had dictated the stenographic test, he gave each stenographer a complete transcript that contained a high proportion of wrong words. By means of underlinings, these transcripts were broken into groups of one, two, or three words each. By comparing the transcript with his notes, the stenographer was to determine which of the underlined groups were correct and which were not exactly as dictated. In one of the test forms, he indicated "right" or "wrong" for each underlined group; in the other test form, he marked only those that were correct according to the dictation.

In trials of 6-minute dictations on groups of 63, 17, 16, 58, 28, and 25 students, these forms gave correlations of .76, .73, .70, .78, .69, and .60, respectively, between typewritten transcripts and transcripts for machine scoring. When included at the end of a regular examination and based on the notes of 3 minutes of dictation already transcribed there, they gave results that correlated .57, .68, and .68 with complete transcriptions by 59, 40, and 41 competitors, respectively.

At this time, a form was received that had been developed in California to introduce machine scoring of stenographic transcription. The Director of the Twelfth United States Civil Service Region credits Mrs. Olive Bowyer of the Naval Supply Center, Oakland, with having developed this form as an independent undertaking and having volunteered it for the improvement of federal examinations.

The form promised the advantage of being multiple-choice rather than only two-choice. It did not give competitors a complete transcript in which words were to be marked right or wrong; it gave scattered words that constituted a skeleton transcript. The correct words for the blanks, as well as attractive incorrect ones, were presented in five alphabetic lists of words, under the letters A, B, C, D, and E. After the stenographer had determined from his notes what word belonged in a blank, he hunted through the lists. If he found the word in the "C" list, for example, his answer was "C."

The word lists were relatively brief, since the dictated passage was divided into a number of sections, each with its short set of A, B, C, D, and E lists. Because the form did not present a complete transcript, the constructor of such a test could include plausible errors for various words, with relatively little concern as to whether they fit the preceding or following words or his suggestions for them.

It was apparent, however, that the competitor with poor notes would have too great an opportunity to guess correct answers, since he could be certain that the word for each blank would be listed and each blank would have but one word. Therefore, before making trials of the form, we introduced the use of *two* words for some of the blanks; and we omitted some words from the list, reserving the letter "E" for the stenographer's use to in-

[2] World War II interrupted experimental work toward eliminating the time-consuming rating of complete stenographic transcripts. Several forms for permitting machine scoring were under consideration. By the time the project was resumed in the fall of 1949, some state agencies, notably California and Oregon, were reporting progress in this direction.

dicate that the dictated word is *not* in the list.

Another objection was that, when many blanks were together, there was danger that a stenographer who omitted a word early in the sequence would move all subsequent answers into too early a position and be penalized for many wrong answers rather than the single omission. To reduce this danger, we set a limit to the number of blanks we introduce between printed words of the partial transcript.

Later we modified the test further, to reduce the time stenographers need to devote to searching through the A, B, C, and D lists. To do this, we combined words into one alphabetic list, with the A, B, C, or D printed immediately after each word. The emergency expansion of hiring made it necessary for the Civil Service Commission to furnish many examiners in other agencies with examination material and also with detailed instructions, in order that they would all conduct the examination and rate the papers in the same way. For the rating of typewritten transcriptions, relatively detailed instructions and definitions of error were needed. By contrast, the transcription procedure that permits machine scoring could be used by inexperienced examiners with little difficulty. The form was adopted for competitive use, therefore, before further evidence could be accumulated concerning it, or steps taken to make exercises longer than 3 minutes, as was believed to be desirable. We felt that we were not jeopardizing the interests of competitors in view of the facts, first, that the examination was open for any competitor to take an alternate form as frequently as he might wish and, second, that the great demand for eligibles permitted stenographic ratings of simply "eligible" or "ineligible."

Outlook

THE COMMISSION'S test developers felt that the new form is the best of its kind to date. At the same time, they realize that there is much more that should be learned about it.[3]

With this examination, even more than with less popular ones, the Civil Service Commission is confronted with the problem of producing many comparable alternate forms, and careful attention is being given to the considerations believed to hold them comparable.

Nation-wide data as to the effect of the new form can be analyzed before fine distinctions on the register of eligibles again become important.

Some problems concerning the test form cannot be studied from competitors' papers. For example, differences in length of dictation cannot be introduced. Business schools have been highly cooperative in permitting experimental programs in which those problems are being studied.

The major advantages for which the form was sought will not be realized until employment conditions are again reversed. The typical situation has been that thousands of stenographers compete, giving a large enough register to make further examination unwarranted for another year or so. A natural result of the great number of competitors and the nature of the tests was that months would elapse before a register could be established. Such delay reduced the proportion of competitors who continued to be available. Expediting the establishment of registers will be in the best interest of the examining agency, the competitors, and the employing agencies. Under such circumstances, machine scoring is expected to prove of great value.

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[3] Machine-scored transcript booklets on two 6-minute dictation passages have been used in trials in schools. Therefore they cannot be used by us as confidential test material. In the effort to develop additional data, we should be pleased to cooperate with any public personnel agency that wishes to consider reproducing these series for appropriate use and would make results available to us.

PERSONNEL OPINIONS

• What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have posed the same question to each of several persons and have asked them to comment on the various points it raises. Here's what they say.

The Question . . . .

What practical suggestions can you make as to means and methods a personnel agency can use to validate its selection procedures?

The Replies . . . .

NORMAN C. ECKLUND, Supervisor of Examinations, Civil Service Commission of San Francisco.

It is well that the question emphasizes a practical approach that faces the realities of day to day work in a typical personnel agency. We know all too well the statistical shortages that foil neat research projects in our field. The usual screening procedure excludes certain applicants on qualification requirements, eliminates others on successive tests in a battery, and then produces an eligible list of the survivors. From these survivors appointments are made over a period of months or years to positions which vary somewhat as to duties within a class and greatly with respect to supervisorial settings and staff environments. Service ratings, even where they exist, are, in such circumstances, useful only as a basis for individual counseling and cannot be used satisfactorily for validation purposes.

Where do we look for validation? Usually the criteria must be broad and for this reason have never satisfied the technician. But the citizen finds satisfaction in service courteously and efficiently performed; the department head finds it in skillful execution of his plans; and fellow employees find it in congenial workers who carry their fair share of the daily load. These standards provide a measure of the results not only of selection procedures but also of many intangible factors. Performance standards are not static but fluctuate with changes in tradition, statutes, administrative practices, and technology. The productivity of a department becomes a function of a formidable array of variables. Three of the most important of these are the following: (1) the quality of personnel available to the service; (2) the adequacy of the training given to the employee for his present job as well as for possible promotion; and (3) all of the factors affecting the rate of turnover. It cannot be said that these three are mutually exclusive; each is related to the other and in some degree affects the total efficiency of the service.

But the technician has his field. He finds it in classes with large groups of employees who have passed similar tests and whose job performance can be measured with some fair degree of accuracy. The job performance of failures on original entrance batteries almost never are available to him so he must be content with indices based upon relative performance of successful candidates in test batteries as against job standards. At this point veterans' preference, absolute or otherwise, must be factored out.

The importance of effective recruitment cannot be overemphasized. Every effort must be made to attract and hold people who represent in their respective fields the types of personnel most likely to produce optimum results on the job. Selection procedures applied to such recruits can be improved by careful preparation, including the use of operating personnel and subject matter specialists to assist in reviewing proposed test material. Careful training and guidance of oral appraisal boards is always necessary. The point here is that in our validation work we must keep one eye on the selection devices and the other on the nature and range of abilities and aptitudes of the human material to which they are applied.

Public personnel developments have made such great demands upon the field of testing and selection that a considerable lag exists between what is required of test batteries and what they alone can actually produce. Fortunately most jurisdictions have protected this situation by using admission standards of experience or training or both. If all candidates must be journeyman carpenters, for example, the relatively low validity of a pencil and paper test for this work is not as disconcerting

as it would be if such entrance standards were not used.

Validation of selection procedures has an added special meaning in the public service. Its key lies in the impartiality and fairness with which the process works. The employee who gains employment and consideration for promotion purely on his own merits senses more clearly the meaning of democratic principles of government. This desire to be democratic often leads to broad standards of admission with possible lengthening of the odds on prediction of success on the job. But for most nontechnical positions it is preferable to err on the side of liberality rather than try to tailor-make requirements for such jobs. It is possible to achieve higher immediate validity in the selection process with narrow admission standards, but a democratic civil service will recognize the general factors which are common to so many kinds of work.

A sweeping testimonial to the public faith in a career service based upon scientific selection is evident when a scandal breaks among noncareer government people. The first solution that is offered is inclusion of such positions under civil service although psychologists are the first to admit the terrifying inadequacy of predictive tests of honesty. Perhaps the only conclusion that can be drawn from public opinion in this matter is that the public believes career employees are more likely to be honest than noncareer employees. If this belief is correct, then we shall have to look beyond our test batteries for the explanation. The answer probably lies partly in the lessened political pressures upon civil service personnel, partly in the investigations and screening of personal histories of applicants, and partly in the prayerful hope that those who govern have a higher average set of ethics than those governed.

There is much research that can and should be done to validate selection procedures. The techniques exist to carry such research far beyond its present stage of general application. Trained technicians are available in fairly large numbers and others would enter the field if it were expanded through adequate financing. Failure to provide such funds in the past can mean only (1) that research-minded people have not produced sufficiently spectacular sample studies to open the coffers to them and/or (2) that civil service staffs, department heads, and the public believe existing selection procedures have sufficient self-evident validity to justify their use. Impressive validation studies in the selection, assignment, training, and promotion of manpower have been made by the armed forces. For example, the results of applying the best of existing psychometric knowledge to the staffing of air crews and aircraft maintenance teams have demonstrated clearly that the research is necessary if our nation is to survive. The urgencies of improving the selection of military personnel are being given a great deal of attention. If the urgencies of improving the selection of civil servants could be placed on a level of recognition with the needs recognized in military practice, a significant advance in public service could result. There are good reasons for believing that many business organizations would benefit from a similar awakening.

Harold O. Freeburg, Director of Personnel, Miami Beach, Florida.

The essence of the service rendered by a personnel office to its parent organization is the validity of its selection program. Unheard of a mere decade ago, the use of standardized examinations and testing programs by municipal personnel offices is becoming more and more universal. The value of these tests could be immeasurably enhanced by research and study within the individual personnel departments.

A reliable merit rating and accurate job analysis would be of invaluable assistance to an examiner in validating these standardized tests as well as tests he develops himself and would prove a most worthy adjunct to the selection procedure.

Through constant study and research within the individual municipal personnel office, a standardization of its merit rating, job analysis, and testing program, must naturally evolve. Today, many of our larger industrial concerns have developed their testing programs to such a degree that there has resulted a considerable reduction in turnover; longer terms of service; minimization of training requirements; decrease in grievances; and what is of vital importance to the success of any organization, public or private, a heightened morale and more accurate placement of the employee.

Research has long been a bugaboo of the layman, and unreasonably so. Within the organization of a municipal personnel agency are classifiers who are constantly improving specifications so that the classification plan presently in effect is an accurate one. The availability of these individuals and a minimum amount of intelligent, coordinated direction can result in a planned research program,

without adding an appreciable sum to the personnel budget.

The problem of validating the tests themselves is not new. The research done by such men as Tiffin, Lindquist, Thorndike, and other scholars in this field can be supplemented by carefully planned research programs in the individual agencies. Validation of tests and selection procedures does not end with the administration of an examination. Use must be made of the probationary period and of the merit ratings given during this period, unless a better criterion is available, if any measure of validity is to be obtained. Follow-up tests given after the individual is hired would ascertain the amount of training necessary, degree of satisfaction, and retrogression or improvement of the individual jobholder.

Presently this process of retesting is at a minimum in municipal operations. However, through the medium of an educational program, municipalities would find that employees would welcome such examinations when they realized that the end result would be an improvement not only in their own working conditions, but also in the service the municipal offices as a whole render the public they serve. The practicability of this idea has been proved. Ten years ago, standardized tests for civil service examining programs were not considered feasible. Today, they are an accepted custom. Today, personality or interest tests in a civil service examination are not generally recognized. Until the validity of this type of testing is established as a result of research by civil service agencies, proving that such measures contribute to the selection procedure, their use will probably not become widespread.

The constant searching for the ultimate in proficiency, prerequisite of the modern personnel officer, will eventually result in concurrent procedures throughout the personnel field, and the small agency and municipality will be able to avail themselves of the resulting improved techniques.

The City of Miami Beach is fortunate that the University of Miami is located within the surrounding area. This University maintains an excellent psychology department and vocational guidance center and is most cooperative. Also available is the assistance of our state university.

The problem of validation of a selection procedure is a challenge to us all, and properly addressed, in concentrated action, will be successfully met.

THELMA HUNT, Executive Officer, Department of Psychology, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

There are three main points I would like to emphasize in relation to this question.

1. We should make *more definite provision for validation studies* of the follow-up type. All of us who work with the development of selection instruments and the setting up of selection procedures (whether they be for employees or for professional school and college trainees, as have been my concern more recently) support in principle the necessity of follow-up validation studies. But all too often we plan a selection program with all the definiteness possible to the preliminary development of the selection procedure and the institution of the program of application of the procedure, but with nothing specifically planned in the way of a follow-up study. Sometimes I think there ought to be a law against the application of any new test or other selection device before an experimental design complete in details has been set up for a follow-up validation study. Without such early planning the follow-up study is likely never to occur or to be poorly executed.

2. My second suggestion is that we pay *more attention to criteria of performance.* No research on the validity of selection procedures can be done until a job performance criterion against which to check the selection procedures is available. The making of such available usually becomes the most difficult problem in any personnel research program. And yet the criterion problem is often an afterthought with too much taken for granted. We assume that routinely available records on employees or efficiency ratings given for other purposes will be usable. Too often on checking they are not available at all or are in such a form or discriminate between employees on such a general basis that they are worthless as a basis for validating selection procedures. As a practical idea I would like to suggest that a very early concern of the personnel research worker developing new selection procedures should be to determine in detail what situation he is likely to meet in the future when he is ready to do follow-up validation studies. This concern should be with respect to available criteria of performance and with respect to the possibilities of developing additional criterion measures if necessary to supplement existing ones. Furthermore, this development of additional criteria brings up other points of emphasis which my space limitations will permit me only to mention. Relative to the development of

selection procedures more attention needs to be given to various problems connected with criteria of performance. These include study and development of adequate rating scales, establishment of "critical" or "essential" elements of job performance, and study of reliability of criterion measures.

3. My third suggestion is for *more preliminary job validation of selection devices* from the beginning or from the ground up in the early stage of development of new techniques. Assuming adequate criterion measures of job performance available, for example, item analyses of tests for validity could be done in terms of job performance criteria. Too often item analyses in the process of construction of a test are either not done, are limited to analyses of item difficulty, or are on the basis of internal consistency between performance on the item and performance on the test as a whole.

All three of these suggestions have implied in them, if not specifically stated, the necessity of recognizing the importance of validation studies and the provision for them in program planning and staff provision within personnel agencies.

MILTON MANDELL, Chief, Administrative and Management Testing, U. S. Civil Service Commission.

An effective discussion of this question involves analyzing the reasons why public personnel agencies have done so little research work in validating selection methods. Lack of time and money, lack of trained personnel, the administrative difficulties involved in arranging research studies, and the technical difficulties connected with obtaining an adequate criterion and an adequate sample are probably the major reasons. The solution to the problem of lack of time and money cannot be offered from any one central point of view. The strategy involved in obtaining the necessary resources is obviously one that has to be determined locally. In terms of obtaining qualified personnel, it would seem that temporary consultants could readily be obtained if the permanent staff of the public personnel agency needs additional experience or training in conducting such studies.

The following are the practical suggestions that are offered in this connection:

1. None of the employees participating in the research studies should be identified by name. Instead, code numbers should be used throughout so that the employee will feel that his present or future status will not be jeopardized as a result of his participation in a study. Administrators should be told that they will not be informed regarding the test results of their employees, and the employees should be told that they will not see the ratings used as a criterion. These steps are necessary in order to assure cooperation.

2. The ratings used as a criterion in research studies should be especially prepared for the study. There are very few cases where existing ratings are adequate. A much better distribution of ratings will be obtained if it is emphasized that the ratings will be used for research purposes only and that no one outside the personnel agency will see them.

3. Preliminary research work is needed before actual operating research can be conducted in order to make it most efficient. In other words, there should be a thorough study of the job and a thorough study of previous validation work before a determination is made as to the criterion to be used and the selection methods to be included in the study. Obviously, in determining which selection methods to include, an important criterion is the practicality of the method for civil service use.

4. The reliability of the criterion and the selection method should be determined in order to obtain fullest insight into the research results.

5. Where the nature of the organization is such that employees are working in small groups in different units, it is often possible to combine the several small groups into one group, assuming that they are doing essentially similar work, by dividing each group into high and low halves on both the criterion and the test scores and then combining them. This is not a neat solution to this problem of small groups but it may be a practical and necessary step. Frequently, the alternative is doing no research work.

6. One sometimes finds that only one person is in a position to furnish ratings to be used as the criterion. Because of individual idiosyncrasies it is probably desirable to avoid including any cases where two or more independent ratings cannot be obtained. It should be possible to meet this condition in most cases.

7. Too often we find that complex statistical methods used in validating selection methods are not justified by the reliability of the data or the number of cases. Very often, a simple scatterplot or a four-fold table is the best way of analyzing or presenting the data.

8. Because of the desirability of cross-validation, cooperative effort on the part of several personnel agencies is desirable. If each agency can contribute a modest number of cases, the results from the several agencies participating will then be significant despite the limitations of data obtained by any one agency. This pooling of work of several agencies could very well be the responsibility of the Civil Service Assembly.

9. It would seem desirable that research studies of this type should be conducted on employees now working at these jobs, rather than on the basis of a follow-up study with new employees. A follow-up study often has the disadvantage that the results are limited to the few selection methods included in the actual examination, whereas a study based on present employees can include a larger variety of selection methods. Another difficulty in the follow-up study is that the employees may be appointed to several departments and work under different conditions, thereby limiting control of the variables that affect the validation study. While a study based upon present employees does have such possible limitations as the curtailment of the range of ability and possible preselection of the group on tests to be included in the tryout, it is probably easier to control these variables than those referred to in the case of a follow-up study.

10. In connection with the administrative difficulties in arranging for studies, experience indicates that administrators will cooperate if the study is carefully planned so as to offer the minimum interference with the operations of the agency. The tests should be administered at a point convenient to the employees who are taking them, the scheduling of tests should conform to the agencies' needs, and a limitation of four or six hours on the time of the employees participating is probably necessary.

In summary, it would seem that personnel agencies can overcome the conditions which have previously hindered them in their research work if they are willing to compromise to some extent. It isn't very often that the conditions of a perfect research study in terms of such factors as size of population, reliability, and validity of the criterion and unlimited time for the testing of subjects, can be obtained. However, each agency, by doing its own research work and following the research work of others, can contribute to the improvement of our present methods.

How to Keep Public Officials Democratic

1. A country can remain democratic only so long as it has an elective and representative parliament which exercises control over public policy and programs. This function must not fall by default to professional public servants.

2. Effective publicity must be given to proposed public policies in order that public opinion may be learned.

3. Persons recruited for top leadership positions in the public service must be thoroughly imbued with democratic principles.

4. Career public servants must remain neutral, nonpolitical servants of all the people.

5. Parliaments and other public groups must take action on citizen complaints against public servants.

6. Efficiency in governmental operations must always be kept compatible with democratic ideals.—*Ross Pollock, Chief, Test Development and Standards Branch, U.S. Civil Service Commission.*

A Simplified Device for Hand Scoring Examinations

THE small civil service agency is usually faced with the problem of conducting about the same functions as the larger agencies, but must do the job with a staff of very limited size. This means that every possible labor-saving device must be utilized.

The Civil Service Commission of Bremerton, Washington, developed a little device that has helped cut down the time—and eye fatigue—required to check true-false and multiple-choice tests which may be helpful to other agencies too small to justify machine-scoring equipment. It is very simple—a quarter-inch hand paper punch.

The booklet to be keyed is kept in loose-leaf form. The right margin is trimmed to about a quarter of an inch from the letters or figures in the answer column. This permits punching out the appropriate letter or figure without crumpling the edge of the sheet. It also leaves a space exposed on the test sheet for marking mistakes.

The key is laid over the test sheet and the checker can see at a glance which items are incorrectly marked. All mimeographed sheets do not come out spaced exactly alike on the page, but adjusting the key over the answer column is a simple matter and the time and eye-strain saved is considerable. Keying with the paper punch takes little, if any, more time than simply marking a copy for key purposes.

The cut below illustrates the way the key sheet looks when placed over a test. Questions have been answered correctly if the X appears within the circle (the punched out hole). The checks in the extreme right-hand margin, which indicate a wrong answer, have been made by the person scoring the test.—*John J. McPherson, Secretary-Chief Examiner,* Civil Service Commission, Bremerton, Washington.

22. The chord of a simple curve can be determined by multiplying the radius of the curve by the central angle. — 22. T X

23. To be termed a "polygon" a geometrical figure must have five or more sides. — 23. T F ✓

24. The point slope formula for a straight line is y - y1 = m (x-x1). — 24. X F

25. If in the same circle two chords are unequal, the lesser chord determines the greater minor arc. — 25. T X

26. A cosine is the ratio of the adjacent side to the opposite side of an acute angle of a right triangle. — 26. T X

27. All trigonometric functions are positive in the first quadrant. — 27. T F ✓

28. All trigonometric functions are negative in the third quadrant. — 28. T X

29. All ellipses have two lines of symmetry. — 29. X F

30. Common logarithms are also called "natural" logarithms. — 30. T X

31. Second, third, and fourth derivatives are known as derivatives of "higher orders." — 31. T F ✓

32. The derivative of a constant is 0. — 32. X F

88. Of the following, the operation that usually should be performed first is:
    A. testing out, splicing, soldering, and taping;
    B. installing switch and receptacle plates;
    C. installing service conduit;
    D. grounding conduit and service wires;
    E. first examination by electrical inspector. — 88. A B X D E

89. Of the following, the operation that usually should be performed last is:
    A. final electrical inspection;
    B. final testing out;
    C. installing lighting fixtures;
    D. grounding conduit and service wires.
    E. installing switch and receptacle plates. — 89. A B C D E ✓

90. Which of the following terms indicates gauges of electric wires?
    A. Winchester;
    B. Roebling;
    C. Brown and Sharpe;
    D. Westinghouse. — 90. A B C D ✓

91. The purpose of soldering flux is to:
    A. help melt the solder;
    B. keep the soldering iron clean;
    C. help solidify the solder;
    D. clean and free the surfaces from oxide. — 91. A B C X

THE BOOKSHELF

Colonial Civil Servant. Sir Alan Burns, G.C.M.C. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London, 1949. Pp. 339. 18/ net.

It generally is recognized by historians and political scientists that the British probably have been the most successful colonial administrators of modern times. Hence, when one of these administrators, after more than forty years of service, writes his memoirs, the resulting effort demands from public personnel people more than passing notice. Such a work is the "Colonial Civil Servant" by Sir Alan Burns, which this reviewer feels is full of wisdom for us who try to hew a workable path between theory and practical convention.

Alan Burns (later Sir Alan) was, as he puts it, "practically born into the Colonial Civil Service," as his father and grandfather were both civil servants. Hence, he states he has no remembrance of "ever having thought seriously of any other possible career." He was born in 1887 in Basseterre, chief town of St. Kitts in the Leeward Islands. After a few years in a school in England, he entered in 1905, at the age of seventeen, into the Colonial Civil Service of the Leeward Islands. He served in these Islands in various capacities until 1912. From then until 1924 he received his basic training and grooming for senior positions in South Nigeria under such excellent administrators as Sir Frederick Lugard and Sir Donald Cameron. He apparently "arrived" in 1924 when he was appointed Colonial Secretary for the Bahama Islands. This appointment was followed in 1929 by a return to Nigeria officially as Deputy Chief Secretary, although for a good deal of the time he acted as Chief Secretary. After this, from 1934 to 1939, he served in his first governorship in British Honduras where, during these depression years, he appears to have attempted, with a degree of success, some "new deal" economic pump priming. In order to round out his Colonial Civil Service experience, he went to London for two years (1939-1941) to serve as Assistant Under Secretary of State for the Colonies. His final "tour of duty" was his appointment in October, 1941 as Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Gold Coast Colony.

One is impressed by the variety of legislative, executive, and administrative duties of a high order which are imposed upon these colonial administrative civil servants. They serve on executive and on legislative councils (Sir Alan even served a term in the Bahamas Legislative Assembly while Colonial Secretary for the Government).

Actually, if we wish to be pedantic, there is no such thing as the "Colonial Civil Service." The colonies have their own civil services, which are operated with various degrees of autonomy and complexity under the general supervision of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Generally, administration stems from the British-appointed Governor and his understudy, the Colonial Secretary, through to the various regions and districts by means of local administrative officials, European or "imported," and native. Alongside of these administrative officers, there are the Special Service and Departmental officials, such as medical, education, legal, etc. According to Sir Alan, it is a nice task, and apparently a test of good governorship to keep the administrative and technical services working as co-operative teams.

It is also a test of administrative ability to maintain the correct pace in the advancement of the respective native populations (over sixty million all told) in social and political tutelage. In view of the present racial policies of the Union of South Africa Government, one reads with satisfaction of the lack of racial discrimination in colonial policies, particularly as affecting British West Africa, where educated Africans hold high executive and judicial positions.

Apparently not much attention has been paid to the employment of trained personnel administrators. Sir Alan makes the suggestion that the time has arrived when such personnel should be employed under local public service commissions, so as to relieve the colonial secretaries and the financial advisors of those increasing duties. In fact, he advocates the substituting of the alleged useless and traditional executive councils by groups of advisory specialized committees, such as welfare for social problems, and public service commissions for personnel.

While advocating such specialized assistance, he exhibits a healthy distrust of the expert, especially those who are "imported" and given too much authority. He would have them in advisory capacities. By this attitude, he shows a maturity of judgment born out of his lengthy experience and contact with human beings,

which we on this continent, with our many expert investigators and committees of experts should constantly bear in mind.

Sir Alan's treatment of the Colonial Office in London is sympathetic, but constructively critical. He does not hold the office up to ridicule as Charles Buller did a little over a century ago. In fact, he thinks that the Colonial Office is often too timid, and certainly Mr. Under Secretary is no longer "Mr. Over Secretary." The author pleads for a little more firmness in the Colonial Office's dealings with its own personnel, and a system of service pensions for those who should be retired or discharged for cause.

The book is very easy reading and is sprinkled throughout with little touches of humour and gems of wisdom. There are useful sketch maps indicating the colonies treated. The index is fair, and the appendices contain three documents which any personnel officer could read at periodic intervals with profit. —Hugh Morrison, *British Columbia Civil Service Commission.*

Statistical Methodology Reviews, 1941-1950. Oscar K. Buros, Editor. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1951. Pp. 457. $7.00.

This is the third volume of a series designed to bring together important reviews of books on statistics. This volume differs from the previous ones in being more strictly limited to books on statistical methods. It excludes some books on research methods where statistics are incidental. This was done partly because of the number of new books and partly because the war interrupted the issue of a volume every two years. This volume embraces nearly ten years. The objectives of the original series, however, are the same. These include (a) helping students and teachers at all levels to appraise the adequacies and inadequacies of texts for particular purposes, (b) keeping persons abreast of modern developments and uses of statistics in fields other than their own, and (c) discouraging poor writing and (d) improving reviews.

Dr. Buros and his staff were handicapped in making complete appraisals of texts by the fact that for many texts the reviews seem to have been written as if by a fond uncle who did not want to hurt anyone's feelings. The reviewing of statistical texts is an extremely important function which is now left to volunteers or unwilling and busy experts. Dr. Buros would do a great service if he would organize a corps of competent reviewers in each important area, then motivate them to write critically, for it is probably true that the great majority of readers of statistical texts and manuals are not qualified to judge the accuracy or usefulness of the texts they are required by circumstances to read. Unfortunately many books have been published and widely read which contain serious errors of logic, formulae, and application.

The book lists 342 titles, but of these, 114, or 33 per cent, were not reviewed at all. Most of those not reviewed are pamphlets of from 20 to 60 pages, or revisions of earlier works, or books which had just been published, and for which no reviews had as yet appeared. There were 842 reviews altogether.

There are indexes of periodicals, publishers, titles, names of authors and reviewers, and of topics. The latter contains both fields of application and types of statistical operations. The following is a rough breakdown, made by your reviewer, showing the number of references in each area. Some books are listed under more than one heading.

Fields	*No.*
Accounting	4
Actuarial Statistics	5
Agriculture	6
Biology	12
Business, Economics	3
Chemistry	3
Climatology	1
Econometry	3
Education and Psychology	18
Fishery	2
Flood Forecast	1
Forestry	3
Genetics	1
Herpetology	1
Industrial Production	6
Linguistics	1
Marketing, Opinion	5
Medicine, Public Health	7
Physics	3
Quality Control	38
Sociology	2
Textiles	1
Zoology	2

Operations	*No.*
Analysis of Variance	1
Bibliographies	4
Books for Lay Persons	3
Chi Square	3
Collected Papers	3
Conferences	4
Correlations	3
Curve Fitting	4

Distributions	11
Examination Study Guides	3
Experimental Design	14
Factor Analysis	5
General Texts	13
Graphic Method	8
High School Text	1
Least Squares	1
Machine Calculation	3
Mathematical Background	3
Mathematical Statistics	25
Prediction	4
Probability	24
Random Numbers	2
Regressions	3
Sampling	18
Sequential Analysis	4
Significance	13
Statistical Tables	17
Symposia	3
Tabular Methods	3
Time Series	8
Work Books	11

Dr. Buros and his editors have exercised a good deal more judgment in this volume than in the two volumes previously issued in excluding reviews and in excluding parts of reviews. In fact, they have apparently never printed a whole review but only excerpts. The excerpting seems to have been done so as to retain the opinions of the original reviewers and to leave out a great deal of introductory and inconsequential wording. The more one reads of this book the greater respect one has for Dr. Buros. Reviewers would do well to notice what he has left out of their work. However, in spite of this commendable cutting, the volume is still a very weighty tome, and one must read from four to ten pages with 800 words per page to appraise any one of the major books reviewed. Even then, in many instances, he will still be in doubt about some of the principal contents and applications of the book in question, but he will, at least, be less naive than before. Dr. Buros and his staff have done what they set out to do in a very commendable way.

One delight of a reviewer is like that of a drugstore quarterback, to state, with implied infallibility, a better way of doing the job. With an eye to future volumes, it seems to your reviewer that a book of this size, by such a competent staff, should give more answers to a lot more questions, such as:

1. Specifically what are the two or three best books in a field at a level, and why?
2. What are the peculiarities of various schools of thought as shown by particular authors, and what are good antidotes?
3. What are the major foreign language books in a field? There are probably not many, and they could be reviewed quickly.
4. What are the major developments in technical journals which are not yet well represented in texts? A few of these are probably more significant than several books.

The work of a public personnel officer is often complicated by the need of studying facts secured from various samples to determine their significance in predicting future activities. An experienced public personnel administrator should be well informed on the simplest procedures available and the use of either hand or machine tabulations. From the reviews in this volume it would appear that excellent elementary texts are available by Edwards, Garrett, Guilford, Lindquist, and Helen Walker. Good texts on the preparation and use of charts are available by Clark, Roos, Smart and Arnold, and Weld. Use of machine methods is given by Hartkemeier and by Pease. Simple correlation methods are given clearly in the introductory texts, as are also methods of simple variance analysis. Any public personnel officer who indulges in factorial analysis at this time, except as a diversion, should probably have his head examined.—Edward B. Greene, *Wayne University, Personnel Methods Department.*

Public Administration Readings and Documents. Felix A. Nigro, Rinehart Co., New York, 1951. 493 pp. $4.00.

The literature of public administration has today assumed such proportions as to overwhelm a fledgling inquirer with its sheer quantity. Not too many years ago, one could corral most of the significant contributions to the field from a few books, articles, and reports. At that time, the compilation of a book of readings would have been a comparatively simple matter. Now it is a considerable task and it is a brave person who will undertake it. Each of us has his own predilections as to the subjects which should be encompassed in such a compilation and each has his favorite commentators on the nature of the administrative process. Under the circumstances it is difficult to envisage a book of readings and documents which would fully satisfy all of us. Felix Nigro, however, has done an interesting job. He set himself a limited objective and successfully

resisted the temptation to burden the book with too much material.

Nigro's purpose in this volume was to bring together teachable materials from various sources to aid the undergraduate student in understanding the theory and practice of public administration. Such collections as this are particularly useful as supplementary reading to one of the traditional textbooks and are especially helpful in colleges where limited library facilities make it difficult for the undergraduate to peruse selected literature in its original form and context. In developing this volume, Dr. Nigro culled not only books, monographs, professional journals, and public reports, but he also sifted papers in the files of some governmental agencies and private management consulting firms as well. His collection includes excerpts from speeches of public officials and portions of some unpublished manuscripts which have come his way over the years. The result is a modest sized volume whose organization of subject matter should admit of its easy use with one or more of the traditional public administration texts.

The person who looks to this volume for key portions of the landmark documents and reports of American public administration will not find much of such material. Nor will those who are seeking the commentary of the learned authorities in the field, find all, or even most, of these authorities represented. Conspicuous by their absence are contributions by such luminaries as Gulick, White, W. F. Willoughby, Goodnow, McMahon, Millet, Appleby, Buck, and Beard. Indeed, the bulk of the commentary in this volume, is from the third, rather than the first or second, generation of those who heeded Woodrow Wilson's exhortation of 1887 to study the area of governmental administration. Mr. Nigro has been selective in that he apparently wanted materials which fitted the pattern of the problem discussed in the undergraduate course in public administration as he conceives it rather than a representative sampling of the schools of thought on the administrative process. This is not to say that the authorities of the second generation are not represented at all nor that the first generation is completely ignored. Louis Brownlow belongs to no one generation and yet to all three and his lecture on "The Administrative Process," quoted in this volume, is as fresh, delightful, and trenchant today as it was some fifteen years ago when he delivered it to the Department of Agriculture Graduate School. Nigro has concentrated apparently upon fresh materials since two-thirds of the contributions selected date from no earlier than the year 1940. He has also emphasized the contributions of those who have been practitioners as well as scholars and commentators in the field. This, of course, was not too limiting a factor as few academic disciplines can claim as many scholars who are or have been practitioners as can public administration.

The organization of the book follows the orthodox pattern, beginning with a brief section on the role of public administration in our society in which James McCamy, V. O. Key, and F. Merson are represented. There follows a section on the function of the executive in administration in which selections from Paul Mooney and Thomas P. Reid present the usual business management point of view and in which Marshall Dimock, Donald Stone, and Louis Brownlow ably represent the public administration fraternity. A third section on organization includes commentary from John Gaus, Marshall Dimock, O. L. Nelson, and two gentlemen from the TVA, David Lilienthal and George Gant.

Personnel Administration and Organization are given the greatest emphasis, and each occupies more pages than any of the other five sections of the book. Lawrence Appley starts the personnel section with a discussion of aims in personnel administration. Selections from E. O. Griffenhagen and Associates, from J. Donald Kingsley, Dorothy Adkins, the Civil Service Assembly, the National Civil Service League, and the British Committee Report on the Training of Civil Servants follows. The section on financial administration consists of excerpts from four reports or documents and is the only one in which there is no individual's commentary. A section on Administrative regulation includes commentary from Merle Fainsod and Robert Cushman and material on advisory committees from one of the historical studies of the War Production Board. The final section on administrative responsibility offers a piece from John Gaus and two excerpts from unpublished manuscripts by James McCamy and Felix Nigro.

Except for one contribution which seems to be a nearly verbatim report of a talk given *ex tempore,* the selections are eminently readable. The author has prefaced each selection with introductory notes and commentary which help the transitions and give the volume cohesiveness. In these coordinating paragraphs the author pays due deference to most of the authorities in the field whom he has not quoted in his excerpts. A group of good study ques-

tions follows each section along with a selected bibliography.

This reviewer would like to have seen more varied viewpoints represented in the collection. Judicious selection has given the author a volume in which his contributions evidence a general agreement. If the objective is to bring the real world of administration to the student more controversial subject matter would help. This reviewer looked particularly, but in vain, for some excerpts from those more concerned with the sociology of administration and from the iconoclasts among us who have certainly asked some good questions even if they have left us to supply the answers.—WILLIAM J. RONAN, *Director, Graduate Division of Public Service, New York University, and Director of Studies, Temporary Commission on Coordination of State Activities, New York State.*

BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

LABOR-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS ON THE MISSISSIPPI WATERWAY SYSTEM. John G. Turnbull. Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. 1951. 53 pp.

A survey of the development and present status of labor-management relations of the various companies (over 700) now operating in the System. Except where the data are "historically factual" no specific identification is made of companies, unions, and individuals. Chapter I analyzes the characteristics and history of the Mississippi Waterway System; Chapter II presents a brief resume of wages, hours, and working conditions; Chapter III deals with the development and present status of labor-management relations; and Chapter IV summarizes the findings of the patterned interviews, coupled with open-end questions, used in this survey.

HOW TO BUILD A MERCHANDISE KNOWLEDGE TEST. Josephine S. Welch and C. Harold Stone. Wm. C. Brown Co., Dubuque, Iowa. 1951, 21 pp. $1.00.

Several retail stores in the Minneapolis-St. Paul area cooperated with the University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center to conduct this survey. The manual presents step-by-step methods which have been found useful in constructing and calibrating tests of merchandise knowledge. It is designed to help persons who wish to conduct similar tests applicable to their local situations.

MEASUREMENT OF PHYSICAL OUTPUT AT THE JOB LEVEL. Einar Hardin. Wm. C. Brown Co., Dubuque, Iowa. 1951. 13 pp. $1.00.

A report prepared by a member of the research staff of the Industrial Relations Center at the University of Minnesota. It describes how to define output in terms sufficiently accurate for research; discusses problems of direct and indirect measuring methods and their validity and reliability, and problems of sampling time periods and employees.

1952 MICHIGAN MUNICIPAL WAGES AND SALARIES. Michigan Municipal League, 205 S. State, Ann Arbor, Mich. 1952. 83 pp. $3.00.

This report contains pay information as of January, 1952, for 108 positions, ranging from labor positions to administrators, in 102 Michigan cities over 4000 population. Also covered are other current practices in regard to overtime pay, paid holidays, and scheduled work hours per week.

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF REASONING TESTS. Dorothy C. Adkins and Samuel B. Lyerly. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C. 1952. 122 pp. $2.00.

This report was carried out under a contract with the Personnel Research Section, Office of the Adjutant General, Department of the Army. The project undertook to clarify the underlying nature of the abilities affecting performance in types of tests that have been identified previously or suggested as measures of reasoning. Descriptions of reasoning behavior and descriptions of situations in which behavior considered to be reasoning were gathered. An attempt was then made to construct one or more tests, each of which required one or more of the kinds of behavior that had been encountered. The major portion of the study consists of factor analysis of a 66-Variable battery.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AMONG FOREMEN AND SUPERVISORS. A. J. Croft. Research Division, California Personnel Management Association, 2180 Milvia Street, Berkeley 4, California. 1951. 13 pp. $1.00.

Stenographic brief of an address by A. J. Croft, President, National Foremen's Institute.

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

Van Riper, Paul, "The Hoover Commission and Omission." *Personnel Administration,* November, 1951.—Contrary to a popular impression, Hoover Commission coverage was not comprehensive; what was left unsaid may be far more important than what appeared in print. After repeating many recommendations of the President's Committee on Administrative Management of a decade earlier, the Commission went somewhat farther: (1) in pressing for decentralization of federal personnel activities; (2) in recognizing that much of the difficulty stems from the administrative minutiae contained in existing legislation. It appeared to believe that, if these conditions were corrected, the major problems would be solved. The members of the Commission apparently disagreed on some questions, such as extending the merit system, Senatorial confirmation, training, improving procedures on recruiting and on salary and wage determination, and discussed them slightly or not at all. Other matters discussed in the Task Force report are not taken up in the Commission report. Still more important are omissions from *both* reports. Emphasis on procedure and organization makes the treatment of a positive personnel program seem exceedingly thin, but even in the field of organization there are some obvious gaps. The Commission failed to deal in an effective and straightforward way with the problem of the single administrator versus the commission. The existing Civil Service Commission is historically the guardian and protector of the merit system—not the top personnel agency of the government, though perhaps it should be. Consideration of relationships between personnel and budget is completely absent. The whole problem of top-level staff coordination is left almost completely up in the air. There is no discussion of overstaffing and personnel utilization, of maintaining a competent civilian staff for a large and constantly increasing foreign service, and of the difficulty of transfer to or from foreign to continental services. Problems involved in sudden expansion and contraction of the service in periods of emergency pass unnoticed, as do public employee unionization and the many important aspects of an employee relations program—health, safety, housing, counseling, recreation, etc. Little consideration is given to employee-management consultation and cooperation. Consideration of the relationship of the permanent civil service to the great body of citizens seems to have been deliberately avoided, on the ground that it was a "political" question. No attempt is made to bridge the gap between career and political service, though this has been one of the most persistent problems in our public service. Nor is there any consideration of the ethics of administrators in the public service and of administrative action, of harassment incident to personal loyalty investigations, or of the tendency of many to regard the public service as a "parasitic bureaucracy." What the Hoover Commission did do is important and should not be underestimated; at the same time, much remains to be done, especially along the lines of developing a national political policy in relation to the public service.—*W. Brooke Graves.*

Davis, Keith, "Interpreting Personnel Ideas to Operating Officials." *Personnel Administration,* September, 1951.—A personnel office may exist in spite of, rather than because of, the wishes of the operating heads, which weakens the effectiveness of the personnel officer. The personnel officer should examine his own effectiveness, determine that his program is sound and that he is getting his ideas over to the operating officials. To put over ideas within the personnel officer-supervisor environment: (1) *Stop selling; start serving.* Selling often involves persuasion not appropriate to the personnel function; the function exists to perform a service to government management. (2) *Invite operating participation.* Invite the line supervisor to participate. (3) *Make the idea an integral part of previously accepted practices.* Put over an idea by making it such a natural part of procedure for action that it is readily accepted. (4) *Convince yourself first.* Know the weak and strong points of an idea. (5) *Stick your neck out.* On suggestions the personnel officer should stick his neck out because he is simply an idea man, and the burden of original judgment is on the operating official. (6) *State the case moderately.* Exorbitant claims are a sure way to kill an idea. (7) *Throw in alternatives.* Line officials tend to resist a one-way idea. Alternatives give a broader base for decision and show that the personnel chief is not arbitrary. (8) *Leave the back door open.* The personnel officer may need to back down gra-

ciously; absolute or autocratic recommendations can shut the door. (9) *Sell big ideas in little pieces.* Smaller changes can diminish resistance. (10) *Make an idea timely.* Present appropriate ideas when the manager is struggling with a problem, or when his mind is relaxed and he wants something to think about. (11) *Maintain an idea.* Maintenance begins when an idea is put across and involves convincing new personnel or reviving interest in present personnel. (12) *Use informal communication.* Informal communication may help the personnel officer put over ideas by bringing "confidential" news, spreading understanding of ideas, giving more appropriate timing, being a source of new ideas, and giving insight into operating officials' problems. (Article contains a poem on informal communication, the grapevine).—*Wendell H. Russell.*

WHITE, CORNING. "Humanizing Management." *Personnel Journal* October, 1951.—Many American industrial enterprises have special programs to explain themselves to the rank and file of labor and to educate labor in the economic facts of life. However, the mass of workers have very little interest in capitalism or communism or economic theory. They are interested in the small things that happen in their daily lives at home and on the job. Since most managements have a genuine desire to treat their employees fairly and generously despite statements to the contrary, they should realize that the only thing which will exert real influence on the workers is what management *does.* The action required herein is twofold. First, the worker must be treated on the job as an individual worthy of respect and recognition. Second, management must recognize that a worker has, and is primarily interested in, a personal life outside the plant. Progress is being made toward achieving the first through foreman training toward humanizing management's relations with the worker on the job. The latter can only be achieved by an organized program of humanized, individualized *action.* Most of the usual measures currently employed by large corporations to win employee goodwill are spoiled by the impersonal, mechanistic, mass manner in which the workers are handled. The employee benefits will have little effect toward building employee confidence in the management, unless they are administered with a friendly, personal touch. Management's real task in labor relations, therefore, is not so much to educate its workers to an understanding of capitalism as to convince them by a multitude of acts of consideration and kindness that they are decent, well-disposed humans, who want their employees to be as happy and secure as is possible in this uncertain world.—*Ullmont L. James.*

CLAYTON, L. W., "The British Administrative Class." *Personnel Administration,* July, 1951.—Prior to the eighteenth century, appointments were made by royal favour and financial controls were inadequate. From 1800 to 1870, realization of these inadequacies, in a service which numbered over 16,000 led to a number of reforms which by the time of Gladstone in 1870 placed responsibility for public accounts in parliament and insisted on open competitive examinations for most vacancies. In the last 50 years, four main classes or groups of grades have emerged: Clerical, Executive, Professional, and Administrative. The Administrative class is concerned with policy formation and general control over departmental administration. The Executive class is concerned with internal organization and control. Generally speaking, the Executive class is considered inferior to the Administrative class, but not in all instances. In the U.K. there is a clear-cut distinction between ministerial posts and Civil Servants. "The Permanent Head of the Department, his deputies and Under-Secretaries under them, are members of the Administrative class who have reached their posts by promotion on merit." Although the determination of policy is the responsibility of Ministers, much of the minor policy considerations are evolved by those in the Administrative class largely because the great size and scope of departments limit the Ministers' time to major concerns. Because of their position in the hierarchy, they become the connecting link between policy and its execution, and in this strategic position they must advise the Minister on both policy and operating matters and interpret policy to the lower echelons. First Class Honour graduates from Universities are competitively examined and the successful ones enter a training grade (Assistant Principal). Unsuitable ones are discharged during a probationary period but the successful ones are given wide experience which after a period of five or more years allows their promotion to Principal. Although promotion from the lower grades was rare prior to 1914 it is now an accepted practice to the extent that in some departments up to 50% may enter by promotion. Prior to 1914 the majority in the class came from the upper strata of society because the financial limitations of the lower and middle income groups precluded them from attend-

ing universities. Latterly, however, the social composition is changing due largely to the influx of lower and middle groups who are now able to secure university training, and the admission through promotion from the lower grades. The "Civil Servant of any grade . . . is not allowed to indulge in political or party controversy lest he should appear to be no longer the disinterested adviser of Ministers." —*Kenneth R. J. Scobie.*

LEONARD, DAVID A., and HENEMAN, HERBERT G., "A Scale for Supervisory Evaluation of Personnel Departments." *Personnel,* November, 1951.—The personnel department generally is organized as a staff facilitating agency, serving line managers, including supervisors. One way to see how well the personnel department performs its functions is to ask supervisors how well the personnel department is doing its job. An opinion questionnaire or attitude scale has been developed during the University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center pilot studies. Supervisors completing the questionnaire do not sign their names nor are they identified in any way. The scale is made up of 58 positively or negatively expressed statements to which the supervisor responds—strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, or strongly disagree. Two additional items ask for suggestions of supervisors and space is provided for remarks. Directions in use of the scale are detailed to facilitate self-administration. Positive and negative statements are intermixed to prevent "halo" effect. The response sequence is consistent throughout the scale to facilitate administration and scoring. Some items refer to the personnel department directly and some refer only to functions performed by the department. Appropriate modifications may be made in the scale to fit particular situations. Subscales can be prepared by grouping items relating to particular functions within the department. Total scale scoring, average scale scoring, and sub-scale scoring can be made if weights are assigned each response. The scale might serve as a useful tool to gauge the effectiveness of the personnel department and its functions and could suggest weak spots in the program. (The scale is reproduced in full in the article.)—*Kelvin D. Sharp.*

Retirement

EXTON, WILLIAM JR., "Preparing Employees for Successful Retirement." *Personnel,* November, 1951.—Through the government's social security program, the retirement plans provided by federal, state, county and municipal governments, and a variety of plans offered by industrial organizations, a larger number of individuals are involuntarily retired from their accustomed productive activities each year. Such forced retirement involves serious adjustment difficulties, to which little scientific thought has been specifically directed. It has been suggested that retired men deteriorate more rapidly in health and ability, and at least one study has tended to confirm the belief that men in retirement live longer when they find substitute activities. It is important to consider the economic, social, and physiological effects of retirement before attempting to develop suggestions for the application of guidance principles. Every factor in these effects has values peculiar to the individual, yet retirement is usually characterized by enforced uniformity as to age and income. The retired individual will reach some form of adjustment, however unsatisfactory. The fortunate individual will also continue to enjoy good health and adequate vitality, but the less fortunate case will involve serious disturbances. Guidance can do little to prevent the "decay of age," but the growing science of gerontology is providing information which should influence the planning and conduct of retired people. Guidance to retired persons in economic and social matters parallels guidance to the young in general subject matter covered, but there is an enormous difference in orientation, emphasis, and in the application of techniques. Where there has been no preparation, the change will occur as abruptly in the way of life as on the calender. The selection of a hobby should be subject to careful guidance. If the retired person has a hobby from which he is barred by physical debility, cost, or lack of suitable companions, it becomes another source of frustration. Special vocational counseling should be given employees retiring with incomes insufficient for their needs. Guidance should assist the retiring employee to foresee the implications of the various possible domestic arrangements and to choose wisely among alternatives. Counseling employees for retirement should provide for a successful happy transition from productive employment to earned respite, so that the years ahead may not be filled with frustration and bitterness. The opportunity here is far too great and appealing to permit the present haphazard and often destructive situation to continue. It has been the cause of far too much unnecessary misery among those who have earned the right to a better "break" for their declining years. (Article lists factors in success-

ful guidance and the results of a survey of preretirement practices based upon a study of the activities in this general field of a number of leading companies.)—*Ruth L. Olson.*

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Supervision

COLYER, DANIEL M., "The Good Foreman—As His Men See Him." *Personnel,* September, 1951.—Interviews with 110 hourly rated employees working in three companies which maintain entirely different industrial relations environment revealed that the employees agreed substantially as to what makes a good foreman. All employees expect their foreman to be courteous, kind, impartial, honest, and trustworthy. With a few exceptions the employees want their foreman to have job competency. He must be much more than "likable" to impress his men favorably. The workers need and desire the job security, appreciation, and respect which are concomitants of good job performance. Because of this they want the foreman to have a thorough knowledge of how well each member of the work group performs his job and they expect the foreman to take remedial action with those employees who need correcting. Although workers resent an arbitrary know-it-all foreman, they do want him to be self-confident and at certain times forceful. They feel secure in the knowledge that their foreman knows what he is about and can meet problems adequately. More than 80 per cent of those interviewed were against unrestrained social mixing between foreman and worker. Apparently, the foreman should be pleasant and friendly to all but close to none. Although these separate attributes which employees want their foreman to possess at first seem unrelated, they have a common base. The foreman who possesses them is better equipped to help his employee gratify his psychological and economic needs, which, in the worker's eyes, is the only justification for a foreman's existence. The interviews did reveal some areas of disagreement. Some want the foreman's help on personal problems but others consider this an affront to their dignity. All employees want the foreman to supervise closely but many are hypersensitive about a foreman "peering over their shoulder."—*Robert A. Quinn.*

Testing

HAY, EDWARD N., "Mental Ability Tests in Clerical Selection." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* August, 1951.—"Cross Validation of Clerical Aptitude Tests" (Hay, E. N., *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 1950, 34, 153-158) was a report of the results of a study of prediction of success in a group of eighty-two key punch operators by means of a battery of three clerical tests. The tests used were Minnesota Numbers, Hay Number Series Completion, and Hay Name Finding. Subsequently the question arose whether scores from mental ability tests were available for this group; and if so, whether they showed that mental ability was a factor in the performance. Such scores were available and they show that while there was undoubtedly a mental alertness factor in the performance it did not serve to improve prediction over that furnished by the clerical aptitude tests alone. While the article referred to dealt only with the cross validation of three clerical aptitude tests, it may be of interest to see the results of applying thirty different combinations of tests to the two groups of key punch clerks; fifty-three rated "good" and twenty-nine rated "poor." It can be seen that although there is a mental alertness factor at work, in this particular group there is a decrease in prediction efficiency when a mental ability test is used, either alone or in combination with other tests. Experience shows that it is possible to select for the simpler routine clerical tests without using a mental ability test since clerical aptitude tests alone are sufficient. A verbal-numerical mental ability test is a valuable addition to the test battery for identifying the quick learners, a quality essential for promotion to supervisory and technical positions. (Article contains a table showing combinations of scores applied to key punch operators.)—*Gale L. Reeder.*

BROKAW, LELAND D., "Comparative Validities of Short Versus Long Tests." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* October, 1951.—When the Air Force began classifying basic airmen for specialty training it was discovered that complete coverage by tests which approached factorial purity would require a test battery at least three days in length. As a possible device for reducing the testing period, reduction in length of individual tests was considered. Changing the length of tests has greater effect on their reliability than it does on the validity. This widely accepted hypothesis was demonstrated by the reduction of each of the six tests in a battery to half its original length and observing only a small reduction in their composite validity. The reliability of the "short" battery was high enough (.90) to permit its op-

erational use. Nearly half of the time formerly occupied by these tests in their long form is available for use with other types of tests. The possibility of reduction in length of the batteries required for classification of men for government and industry is significant not only in terms of dollars and cents but also in terms of testing theory. It has been demonstrated that previous belief in the necessity for using quite long tests is unfounded when the tests are to be used in a battery.—*Rufus C. Browning.*

TRAXLER, ARTHUR E., "Objective Testing in the Field of Accounting." *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Autumn, 1951.—In 1943 the American Institute of Accountants appointed a committee which initiated a project to improve the selection of personnel in the field of public accounting. A need was recognized for appraisal in four areas: (1) intelligence or general aptitude for accounting, (2) knowledge and achievement in the use of accounting principles and procedures, (3) vocational interests, and (4) personal qualities. *The Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Men* was chosen for the third area, and the rating of personal qualities was left to rating schemes already employed in colleges and business firms. Since no suitable tests were available for the first two areas, the construction of tests was undertaken. The *Orientation Test* is a general intelligence test slanted toward business subjects designed for use at any level in college or private employment. The test yields a verbal score on vocabulary items, a quantitative score on the arithmetic of business situations, and a total score. An *Achievement Test* was constructed on two levels—for one-year accounting students and for seniors in the last semester of accounting. There is a considerable range in the reliabilities for both the orientation and achievement tests based on scores from different groups, but for the tests as a whole, the coefficients of reliability are high. Suitable criteria for determining validity of the tests are not readily found. College grades and success on the job were used; although the correlations were not high, they were sufficiently positive to be significant. A service program was begun to make these tests available to colleges and accounting firms. Some of the ways in which the tests are now being used include: (1) admission to the study of accounting in college; (2) placement of students in courses; (3) guidance toward or away from an accounting career; (4) appraisal of the curriculum in accounting; (5) furnishing of objective evidence to employers as to aptitude and interests of prospective employees; and (6) appraisal of accounting employees as one basis for upgrading or reassignment.—*John W. Jackson.*

Turnover

BYRT, W. J., "Why Measure Labor Turnover?" *Industrial Psychology and Personnel Practice,* September, 1951.—Labor-turnover consists of the number of employees who started and the number who left during a period, expressed as percentages of the firms' average employment strength for the period. The answer to the question "why measure labor turnover?" is in the economic consequences of labor turnover and its implications on personnel policies and practice, planning for production, and national employment trends. If sufficient statistics are kept and made available to persons studying labor turnover, they may determine how much it is costing a given company or industry in decreased output and increased cost of each unit produced. Factors that should be figured into turnover costs are the expense of advertising for labor, cost of keeping a larger personnel staff to process the new employees, and cost of medical examinations. Labor-turnover statistics may be used to gauge the effectiveness of a recruitment program and the effectiveness of various recruiting methods may be compared if employees are classified according to how they were recruited and a comparison is made of the length of service of one group as against those recruited by another method. It is possible to determine which method yielded the greatest number and the most stable employees. Resignation rates are often regarded as a measure of employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction and if the cause of the high resignation rates in a firm can be discovered remedial action can be planned. Government needs readily available information about the state of the labor market and about employment trends to enable them to make plans to counter unemployment and to be sure that labor is being properly utilized. Labor-turnover statistics are as essential for efficient management as production, cost, or financial statistics. They are a tool whose usefulness depends upon an understanding of the variety of ways they can be applied.—*Dorothy Woodford Cooper.*

Loyalty Investigations

ULMAN, WILLIAM A., "Science Sets a Spy Trap." *Nation's Business,* November, 1951.—How can we know whether persons having ac-

cess to our government secrets will reveal them or not? Scientists who developed the secrets of nuclear fission, jet propulsion, bacteriological warfare, and guided missiles believed that science could work out the answer. The best brains of the United States and the British Intelligence Services plus the top practical and theoretical psychologists were brought together for this purpose. They already had some good material to work with: the German General Staff tests, British Officer Selection methods, and the methods used by the U. S. Office of Strategic Services during World War II. By perfecting and adapting the tests with newly created ones, the scientists believe they have virtually a foolproof method of evaluating a person's character. Time necessary to find the answer will take two to three days of simple easy-to-take tests. Many of the items are deceptively simple when taken individually, but not so easily discernible under time tension and spread apart. The objective tests point out potential nervous unreliability and serve as guide posts for further testing. Some of the tests may be "forced" ones—"What do you do in certain situations?" Others may be preference choice listing. All of the tests give the examiners points of reference to pursue by personal inquiry in private interview. The persons being tested may be asked to write 100 words about himself as his best friends, or as his worst enemy would see him. As the tests cover a few days, the candidates can be observed at the table in social intercourse, theoretically relaxed. One of the important tests has to do with an individual's reaction when drinking liquor. The tests are not substitutes for checking by FBI, but the background checks have often confirmed the same answers that the tests have given. At present, 20,000 applicants have been tested.—*Alberta Brown.*

Public Relations

ARNOLD, THURMAN, "Bullying the Civil Service." *Atlantic Monthly,* September, 1951.—Congressional investigation of a particular agency whose conduct has become notorious is a salutary thing. But it is a mistaken idea to think that because it is possible to reform a particular agency, it is therefore possible or desirable to reform everybody all at once. Ethics in any group arise out of a sense of tradition and pride in their particular calling. You must first develop a sense of pride before you can create a sense of personal integrity. The present attitude toward government employees makes it difficult to maintain the sense of pride necessary for a code of ethics. The agency itself does not have the protection to good will that the law gives a private business. If anyone charged a steel company with incompetence and special privilege he would have to prove the truth or respond in damages. The most reckless charges can be made about a government agency with practical immunity. No official in industry can be found guilty of probable disloyalty without evidence. But the civil servant, with access to no secrets whatever, is considered so untrustworthy that the tribunal which tries him may use reports of secret police and give credence to unsworn statements of unidentified informers. What are the compensating rewards for government service? They do not lie in the area of prestige and income. Specialized training, leading as it does to industry contacts, is the only reason I can think of why a brilliant college graduate with an opportunity elsewhere should enter civil service. Influence will not be curbed by a humiliating restriction placed on government employees as a whole. If the government service has been deteriorating, I would assign as an important cause, that it is becoming so harassed, restricted, preached against, distrusted, and generally kicked around that brilliant young men with other opportunities pass it by.—*John W. Asher, Jr.*

Employee Relations

HALL, HIRAM S. "Communicating with our Employees." *Personnel Journal,* July-August, 1951.—Communication is the art of developing understanding. To be effective it must be continuous. It is achieved in five ways: by silence, when employees should be told and what they are told is indifference; by actions, which may belie words, as when excessive praise and a minimum raise go hand in hand; by inaction, when strength of character or a sense of justice would demand action; by lack of decision which might indicate lack of knowledge or "lack of gumption"; by personality, which is the "twinkle in the eye, the smile on the face, the enthusiasm in the voice." Communication is more than getting ideas across. It is getting them across effectively. Three elements require skillful use in communicating—timing, sensitivity, creation of a sympathetic attitude. It is not well to let employees read of changes which affect them in the newspapers. Tell *them* first. Sensitivity is "knowing exactly when to say something to somebody or to a group in order to get maximum value." It implies an awareness of the strength of the grapevine, so that public notices of impending change are not an

anticlimax to rumor. It is well to have a "good variety of contacts which will enable you to judge the speed at which the rumor snowball is rolling." Creating the right attitude for communicating takes time in establishing a reputation for sincerity. Americans hate propaganda and paternalism. Decisions, policies, and facts are "down communications" which can be handled by employee magazines, supervisory newsletters, manuals, and interoffice memos. The watchword is "be brief but furnish enough information to provide for intelligent action on the part of the person receiving it." "One of the chief problems in industry is getting information to go up." Discussion groups, junior executive clubs, management trainee reports, multiple-management boards, and opinion surveys are familiar and appropriate methods. "Sidewise communication" is important to maximum effectiveness of line and staff relationship. The spoken word is more effective than the written one, especially on the level at which the foreman tells his men individually or in small groups. If he uses every advantage of timing and attitude he can do a good job for the organization. But an executive must be aware that his every action must include planning for communication. A Communication Department as a staff department may be combined with plant community public relations and thus schedule information to employees, management, and the public so that the timing is right and the groups are not overwhelmed with material and then receive none during a long lull. Such a department will present facts in a straightforward way so employees "will be less liable to believe some of the slanderous statements made about business by selfish interests." Good, well-timed sincere communications can build employee loyalty.—*Helen Esray Chase.*

Performance Rating

White, Bruce, "How Necessary are Performance Ratings?" *Personnel Administration,* July 1951.—Performance rating system is used in this discussion as a formal, systematic appraisal of all employees by means of prepared rating reports completed at specified intervals or times.

There is a wide variety of possible objectives of a rating system. Some of the more important ones are listed as follows: (1) promotion; (2) demotion and dismissal; (3) salary increases; (4) recognition of latent talent; (5) remedying staff defects.

In the field of promotion there is a fundamental objection in performance ratings in that they measure what a person is doing, not what he is capable of doing. Another major objection is seen in the physical impossibility of any large service checking the ratings of all employees when filling any vacancy which occurs.

Demotion and dismissal is normally confined to the relatively few who develop serious faults of conduct or approach to their work or whose efficiency deteriorates as a result of failing health. The introduction of the rating system tends to lead supervisors to postpone disciplinary action until the rating reports are prepared, sometimes many months later. The effective use of demotion and dismissal is obtained through adequate supervision, and if this can be obtained a performance rating seems unnecessary.

Where classifications are related to functions of the positions, little or no useful purpose appears to be served by rating systems as applied in questions of incremental advancement. The initial promotion processes ensure the adequacy of an employee for his new position and the relatively short incremental range makes it unlikely that he will deteriorate in that period.

It is claimed that rating systems enable talented employees to be selected at an early stage of their careers and their talents developed with ultimate benefit to the service. Actually this is one of the least profitable fields in which rating performances can be used. The ratings are related to specific work, mostly of a routine nature and can serve as no useful guide to special talent.

As in the case of demotions and dismissals, remedying staff defects is again a daily task of the supervisors which cannot usefully be supplemented by performance ratings.

Conclusion: Because performance rating is a generalized technique, it does not make a sufficient contribution to specialized personnel problems. Too often the rating system is introduced because supervisory staffs are failing to discharge their everyday responsibilities.—*James M. Newman.*

Job Evaluation

Hay, Edward N., and Purves, Dale, "The Profile Method of High-Level Job Evaluation." *Personnel,* September, 1951.—Many job evaluation systems stop just short of the top level because of both real and imagined difficulties in evaluating executive functions. But research in the field of applied psychology, where the law is that "anything that can be observed can be

measured," has made available procedures whereby high-level jobs can be evaluated. One of the newer systems is the "profile method," which has been used successfully in a number of prominent companies. Unlike the factor comparison method, no use is made of present salaries. In order to measure high-level jobs it is essential that it be done by components, common to all the jobs, which are: (1) *Knowledge and experience,* acquired in school and on the job, necessary to perform the duties and fulfill the responsibilities of the job. (2) *Mental application,* or the decisions, planning, policy making, and creativeness required to fulfill the responsibilities of the job and which are permissable within the limits of policy and higher authority. (3) *Accountability* for errors or failure; for performance, judgment or discretion, modified by checks and reviews. Study of a job and of the three components is made easier by deciding what the "profile" of a job should be. A profile is the percentage breakdown of a given job into *knowledge, mental application,* and *accountability,* its purpose being to weigh the importance of the respective components in each job. By the profile method of job evaluation this is done separately for each job. These separate profiles are then harmonized in relation to one another. The various steps which must be taken in the evaluation are: (1) profile all jobs, (2) rank all jobs on the *knowledge* component, (3) decide on the 15 percent intervals between jobs that have been ranked, (4) calculate the values of *mentality* and *accountability* by combining the profile with the ranking and spacing on the *knowledge* scale. (Article contains charts and a bibliography.)—*Carroll R. Boling.*

. . . The CSA

The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, founded in 1906, is a non-profit association of public personnel agencies, together with persons engaged in public personnel work or interested in its improvement. Member agencies of the CSA are civil service commissions and boards and other similar governmental personnel offices. The CSA serves 330 public jurisdictions in the United States and in Canada. In addition, the organization also includes more than 800 individual and affiliate members.

Briefly stated, the purposes of the CSA are these:

- To foster and develop interest in sound personnel administration in the public service, based on the principles of the merit system, and to encourage its wider application;
- To promote the study, development, and use of scientific methods of administration and research in the public personnel field;
- To serve as a clearing house for the collection and distribution of information concerning public personnel methods and procedures, and to provide a medium for the international exchange of information regarding the administration of personnel programs in government.
- To render a program of services to public personnel agencies, assisting them in meeting their administrative and technical problems with sound policies and methods.

To further these objectives CSA offers a varied program of activities, services, and publications to public personnel agencies, their staff members, and the general public. Full information about CSA membership will be sent on request.